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ABSTRACT

This report summarizes the Program for Persons of Limited English-Speaking Ability (PLESA) which involved 47 prime sponsors providing training and employment assistance to over 6,000 persons, most of whom were Hispanic or Asian. Focus is on lessons learned that will be useful for developing such programs. Chapters 1 and 2 discuss the background of the PLESA program and highlight the similarities and differences among the projects which improved their clients' English-speaking ability by providing English as a Second Language (ESL) training and in some cases offering occupational skills training and general education courses. Chapters 3-7 describe project planning and organization: client recruitment, selection, counseling, and training (English language and vocational); and job development and placement. Each chapter follows a standard format including a summary introduction pointing out key lessons learned from the PLESA experience and sections dealing with program components. Each section has three parts: a description of approaches used, discussion of issues raised, and list of recommendations. Chapter 8 presents an assessment of the program and a discussion of implications for future programs and policies. Findings reported show that participant job placement was only 39% and job retention was not high; however, it was demonstrated that there is a need; special services are required; and prime sponsors can mount effective programs. The appendixes contain annotated bibliographies of instructional ESL materials and resources. (A report containing ten project case studies is available separately. See Note.) (YLB)

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The PLESA Experience:

Training and Employment Services for Persons of Limited English-Speaking Ability

by
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Kamer Davis, M.A.
Marta Kelsey

With Annotated Bibliographies of Instructional Materials and Resources for PLESA Projects

by Marta Kelsey

Report Submitted to:

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Through the Program for Persons of Limited English-speaking Ability (PLESA) 47 prime sponsors provided training and employment assistance to more than 6,000 persons of limited English-speaking ability.

This monograph on the PLESA program is part of the Department of Labor's continuing effort to meet its responsibilities to conduct studies and disseminate information about such programs, developed under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). The monograph looks at the PLESA Program as a whole and then focuses on the individual projects. The way in which they organized themselves to provide services, the clients and the services offered to them, language training, vocational training, and job development are all reviewed. The monograph concludes with a discussion of the overall experience, the issues that have surfaced, and policy implications emanating from the program. The appendices contain annotated bibliographies of instructional English as a Second Language materials and resources.

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ESL - English as a second language

PLESA - Persons of limited English-speaking ability

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Executive Summary

The PLESA Experience:

Training and Employment Services for Persons of Limited English-Speaking Ability

Background

In 1976, the U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration (ETA), Office of National Programs awarded $5 million in grants to 47 CETA prime sponsors to provide employment and training services to Persons of Limited English-Speaking Ability (PLESA). More than 6,500 persons, primarily Hispanic and Asian were provided English language instruction, vocational training, and/or employment services through these grants.

In 1977, the Office of Research and Development awarded a research contract to University Research Corporation to describe and document the PLESA experience. Three reports were produced under this contract. The first report provides summary descriptions of each of the 47 projects. The second report is a set of 10 case studies of individual PLESA projects. This third report describes and analyzes the overall PLESA experience: the approaches taken, issues raised, and recommendations for the future.

Organization of the Report

Chapter 1 describes the background of the PLESA program, discussing how and why the program was initiated as well as how it relates to the overall CETA program.

Chapter 2 describes the 47 PLESA projects in general, focusing on similarities and differences in level of funding, services offered, target groups served, types of training provided, and goals and objectives. A

summary table of the 47 PLESA projects, their participants, areas of training, grant amounts, and grant periods is included.

Chapters 3 through 7 describe specific aspects of the PLESA projects, such as planning, recruiting, English language instruction, and so forth. Each chapter describes the various approaches taken by the PLESA projects, issues that emerged, and recommendations for prime sponsors and ETA.

Chapter 8 assesses the overall PLESA experience and includes a discussion of the implications for future programs and policies.

There are two appendices. Appendix A is an annotated bibliography of instructional materials for persons of limited English-speaking ability. Appendix B is a listing of national, regional, and local organizations that can serve as resources for prime sponsors who are interested in providing PLESA services.

Findings

The PLESA money was used to serve 6547 people who otherwise could not have been served. It resulted in 2560 of these people getting jobs and perhaps another 1000 becoming eligible for Title I training.

Project staff learned a lot about serving PLESAs because of this program. There was some success in upgrading the English language ability of PLESAs and in overcoming obstacles to employment. There was also some success in meeting the federal priorities set for PLESAs and in getting the program established within the prime sponsors' regular CETA program.

But the successes were not as numerous as the designers of the program may have expected. Only 39 percent of the PLESA participants were placed in jobs. Job retention apparently was not high. English language ability did not improve enough in many cases to enable participants to get and hold jobs. The program was not successful in meeting three of the federal priorities, and almost two-thirds of the prime sponsors did not continue their PLESA projects.

But the PLESA experience demonstrates that the need is there, that special services are required, and that prime sponsors can mount effective projects to assist PLESAs.

What about the future? The reality is that another national program is unlikely. If services are to be provided at all, the prime sponsors will have to take the lead. ETA can provide indirect support through training, technical assistance to prime sponsors, research and demonstration projects, and policy development.

Recommendations

Chapters 3 through 7 include specific recommendations for prime sponsors, ETA, and the Administration and Congress. These recommendations

are drawn from the experiences of the PLESA projects. Many of the recommendations constitute an "operator's guide" for prime sponsor and project staffs who are interested in providing services to PLESAs. Key recommendations include the following:

Prime sponsors should:

1. Assume the responsibility for serving PLESAs, recognizing that they are a large and growing group in need of special attention and services.

2. Plan projects thoroughly from the start. Include an assessment of training needs and set specific performance objectives.

3. Organize projects along client lines to assure that attention is given to clients by a single staff person or team.

4. Develop specific selection criteria that are based on what can be achieved.

5. Provide personal, cultural, and vocational counseling to clients as an integral part of any project.

6. Target ESL training toward specific manpower objectives and include world-of-work orientation in the curriculum.

7. When vocational training is offered, integrate it with ESL training; offer the training bilingually, but emphasize English.

8. Develop jobs that are carefully matched to client interests and skills.

9. Ensure that follow-up information on retention and success is collected, evaluated, and fed back to projects.

To assist prime sponsors, ETA should:

1. Sponsor research into such areas as the employment and training needs of PLESAs; the types of jobs for which they can be trained in different periods of time; the English language requirements for various occupational fields; the actual cost of providing different types of services to PLESAs.

2. Provide technical assistance to prime sponsors in running a PLESA project; setting performance objectives; selecting participants; selecting ESL and vocational materials; conducting follow-up of participants; and monitoring and evaluating PLESA projects.

3. Conduct development and demonstration projects. ETA could sponsor a series of different demonstration projects for serving different

types of PLESAs and develop a comprehensive set of Manpower ESL text books for PLESAs.

4. Provide training to build the competence of projects to serve PLESAs; and disseminate information concerning innovative approaches and materials.

The Administration and Congress can also play a supportive role by recognizing that PLESAs are a large and growing group in need of special attention and services; by developing an interagency strategy for providing these services; by encouraging coordination among the various agencies involved in serving PLESAs; and by reviewing and revising the legislation that deals with persons of limited English-speaking ability.

Preface

This is the last of three reports on the Department of Labor's program for Persons of Limited English-Speaking Ability (PLESA). The first report was a Summary of Projects Funded. It contained one-page descriptions of each of the 47 PLESA projects. The second report was a set of ten case studies of projects that had developed innovative approaches to serving PLESAs.

This report summarizes the overall PLESA experience. It describes the various approaches the projects took to planning, recruiting, training, and so forth. It identifies the principal issues in each of these areas and makes recommendations for serving PLESAs in the future.

This report, like the others, is not an evaluation of the PLESA program as much as a study of the lessons learned. It is hoped that prime sponsors and project staff will find this information not only informative, but useful for planning and operating employment and training services for PLESAs.

The report is based on information gathered from several sources. The winning proposals submitted by the 47 PLESA projects were reviewed; data from project reports and ETA's management information system were gathered and analyzed; telephone interviews were conducted with all 47 prime sponsors and some project directors; and site visits were made to 36 projects.

The report was prepared by three of the core project staff. Marta Kelsey wrote Chapters 1 and 2; compiled the Annotated Bibliography on instructional English as a Second language materials (Appendix A), and the list of Resources Available (Appendix B). She also coordinated production of the report. Kamer Davis wrote the chapters on English language instruction (Chapter 5) and vocational instruction (Chapter 6). Jack Reynolds wrote the chapters on planning (Chapter 3), recruitment (Chapter 4), and job development (Chapter 7). Ms. Davis and Dr. Reynolds collaborated on the concluding chapter (Chapter 8). Gwen Knight and Judith Edwards assisted in the production.

Several other URC staff have been involved in various aspects of the project and provided much of the data upon which this report is based. Those include Inese Balodis, Vennette Fuerth, Myrna Seidman, Gary Smith, TinMyaingThein and Willy Vasquez.

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Jack Reynolds
Kamer Davis
Marta Kelsey

Glossary

ABE	Adult Basic Education
ABLE	Adult Basic Learning Education Test
APL	Adult Performance Level
CETA	Comprehensive Employment and Training Act
DHEW	U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
DOL	U. S. Department of Labor
ETA	Employment and Training Administration
ESL	English as a Second Language
GED	General Educational Development Test
MESL	Manpower English as a Second Language
OJT	On-the-job Training
SER	Services Employment and Redevelopment; Jobs for Progress, Inc.

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Part I: Introduction

Chapters 1 and 2 discuss the background of the PLESA program and the PLESA projects overall. Similarities and differences among the projects are highlighted.

The PLESA program answered a need in the country to assist a growing population of persons of limited English-speaking ability. Under the authority of Title III of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, as amended, $5 million dollars was awarded to 47 prime sponsors to develop and implement programs designed to meet the expressed needs of PLESAs.

Most projects planned to improve the employability of PLESAs by improving their English-speaking ability. Most projects (94 percent) offered ESL training although some (40 percent) also included occupational skills training and general education courses. Over 6,500 persons were served by the PLESA projects; most were Hispanic. The projects were widely distributed geographically, but there were at least two in every region. Table 1 in Chapter 2 presents summary information on all 47 PLESA projects, including location; numbers of participants, both planned and actually served; and breakdowns by language group, training areas, grant amount, and grant period.

Chapter 1
The Background of PLESA

Practically all official business and government transactions in the United States are conducted in English. This can create a barrier for the many residents of this country who either do not speak English at all or who have only a limited ability to comprehend and converse in English. Many of these individuals are immigrants and refugees, but some are native-born citizens of the United States. Spanish-speaking individuals represent the largest group of non-English speakers, but there are also substantial numbers of Southeast Asians--Vietnamese, Laotians, and Cambodians--and other groups.

In the early 1970's, it became increasingly apparent that these persons of limited English-speaking ability were having difficulty entering the labor force. The language barrier further handicapped these people because they were unable to participate in training programs to learn a marketable skill. For the most part, the few jobs available which do not require English are in low-level, dead-end occupations.

The need for federal training programs aimed at this particular disadvantaged segment of the population was articulated frequently by sympathetic legislators and representatives. Several solutions emerged. Some advocated bilingual vocational education programs. Others felt that the thrust of programs should be to increase English-speaking ability so that English language vocational training could be given.

When the Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) was enacted in 1973, it established a flexible and decentralized system of federal, state, and local programs to provide job training and employment opportunities for unemployed, underemployed, and economically disadvantaged people. The act consisted of six titles, each with a different purpose and thrust.*

> Title I, Comprehensive Manpower Services, provided for manpower training programs conducted with flexible grants

*CETA was reauthorized on October 11, 1978 and the various titles have changed, slightly. See the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Amendments of 1978.

by state and local governmental "prime sponsors."

Title II, Public Employment Programs, provided for transitional public service jobs under the supervision of state and local governmental prime sponsors and other "eligible applications" in "areas of substantial unemployment." These were defined as areas where the unemployment rate had been at least 6.5 percent for three consecutive months.

Title III, Special Federal Responsibilities, was the Secretary of Labor's discretionary account for special target groups such as migrants, Indians, limited English-speaking, older workers, handicapped, etc.

Title IV, Job Corps, continued special programs for disadvantaged young men and women.

Title V, National Commission for Manpower Policy, established a commission with the responsibility for examining manpower issues, suggesting ways and means of dealing with them, and advising the Secretary on national manpower issues.

Title VI, Emergency Jobs Programs, established a transitional public service job program to be conducted by state and local prime sponsors.

Title III of CETA identified unique target groups in need of special attention. Youths, offenders, older workers, and other so-called disadvantaged groups as well as persons of limited English-speaking ability (PLESAs) were felt to have added disabilities warranting additional assistance. With regard to PLESAs, Title III recognized the need to offer special programs to ensure that unemployed and underemployed participants received manpower training, related assistance, and supportive services designed to increase employment and training opportunities.

Specifically, when persons of limited English-speaking ability constitute a significant portion of a prime sponsor's target population, federal regulations* require the prime sponsor to develop programs with operating procedures for the following:

- Teaching job skills in the primary language of such persons for occupations which do not require a high proficiency in English;
- Developing new employment opportunities for persons of limited English-speaking ability;
- Developing opportunities for promotion within existing employment situations for such persons;
- Disseminating appropriate information and providing job placement and counseling assistance in the primary language of such persons;
- Conducting training and employment programs in the primary language of such persons;

*See Federal Register, Vol. 40 No. 101, Part II, May 23, 1975, Subpart C, Section 95.33(c).

- Conducting programs designed to increase the English speaking abilities of such persons.

In late 1975, the Office of National Programs of ETA issued a "field memorandum" to all Regional Offices authorizing them to request proposals from prime sponsors for conducting special projects for persons of limited English-speaking ability under Title III. Prime sponsors were expected to develop projects in line with the six guidelines listed above. The projects could have included classroom training, job development, job placement, supportive services, and upgrade training.

In December 1975, the first $2.5 million reserved for these projects was divided among the Department of Labor's ten regions on the basis of need, determined, in part, by estimates of: 1) the number of persons of limited English-speaking ability; and 2) unemployment rates in each region.

The Regional Offices had the authority to award grants following a competitive grant award procedure prepared by the Office of National Programs. Only Title I prime sponsors in the 50 states and the District of Columbia were eligible to compete. Each region was required to have at least one project and it was suggested that the Regional Offices establish a $100,000 to $200,000 limit on the size of individual grants to allow as many prime sponsors as possible to use the available resources.

Project proposals were developed according to specifications spelled out in a Request for Proposals (RFP) distributed to the prime sponsors. The proposals were reviewed according to competitive procurement processes, but certain criteria were emphasized. Need, the potential ability to provide effective and timely services, staff capability, prior experience with the proposed target group, immediacy of start-up time, and cost were all considered and weighed in awarding grants to prime sponsors.

Final awards were made in February 1976, and projects began as early as March 1, 1976. Most of the awards were for one year.

An additional $2.5 million was made available to the regions for PLESA projects in June 1976. Some proposals originally not funded were funded at this time; other projects were given more money to continue or expand ongoing services.

The overall goal of the PLESA program was to ease the way into the workforce for persons whose limited English-speaking ability was an obstacle to employment. Individual projects, however, frequently developed more immediate and concrete objectives related to raising the level of English-language capability and increasing job-seeking and occupational skills of participants.

Chapter 2
The PLESA Projects: An Overview

By 1976, the Department of Labor had awarded Title III grants totaling $5 million to 47 prime sponsors across the country.* Most of the prime sponsors contracted with a local agency to provide services to PLESA participants. The contractors usually provided training in English as a second language (ESL). This was sometimes combined with adult basic education (ABE) or occupational skills training. Allowances as well as support services, such as counseling, job development, and transportation were provided to participants as needed.

The project in Gary was fairly typical. The City of Gary, the prime sponsor, contracted with SER Jobs for Progress, Inc., to provide all services. Hispanic clients were recruited and their English was tested. They were taught English, offered preparatory training for the high school equivalency test (GED), and prepared for employment. Allowances, counseling, and job development were also provided.

The 47 projects differed widely in all respects: level of funding, services offered, target groups served, and so forth. For example, in funding, the prime sponsor in Springfield received a grant of only $25,000; Atlanta received $162,000; and Tucson received one of the larger grants of $258,000.

A summary of the 47 PLESA projects, their participants, areas of training, grant amounts, and grant periods is contained in Table 1 at the end of this chapter, where there is also a map of the regional distribution of projects.

*Seven of these prime sponsors funded more than one project. For example, Oakland divided its grant between two projects. There were actually 58 separate projects funded by the 47 prime sponsors. In addition to Oakland, New York City had two projects; Pennsylvania had four; Chicago, three; Los Angeles had three; Orange County (California) had two; and Sonoma had two. For clarity and due to the nature of data available, it was decided to group the multiple projects together and use the 47 prime sponsors as the base for reporting on the projects.

2.1: The Goals and Objectives of PLESA Projects

Although employment was the ultimate goal of the program, many projects focused on improving the English-speaking ability of clients as a more immediate objective. In quite a few cases, attainment of a certain level of proficiency in English was a prerequisite to placement in unsubsidized employment or on-the-job training. Also, some prime sponsors set a certain level of English proficiency (usually the equivalent of a sixth grade competency level) as a prerequisite to enrollment in Title I vocational training programs. Therefore, some projects, such as Oklahoma City, used their PLESA grants to teach English to participants so that they could enter regular CETA training programs in carpentry, plumbing, brick-laying, electrical trades, and so forth.

For some clients, the English language training was all that was needed to help them get a job. Many Vietnamese clients, for example, often had marketable skills but could not communicate well enough to obtain or keep a job. For others, particularly Mexican-Americans, language training was not considered enough. Thus, some projects, such as the one in Tucson, combined language and skills training for clients.

Because many participants in the PLESA program were refugees or immigrants, projects serving them often included cultural awareness and survival skills components. These components were usually designed to acquaint the client with such basic skills as using a telephone, reading want ads, shopping for food, and using public transportation. A number of projects also included basic education components to prepare their clients for civil service examinations, other qualifying examinations, or earning a high school equivalency diploma. The project in Cleveland, for example, offered a course that combined English, skills training, and test preparation.

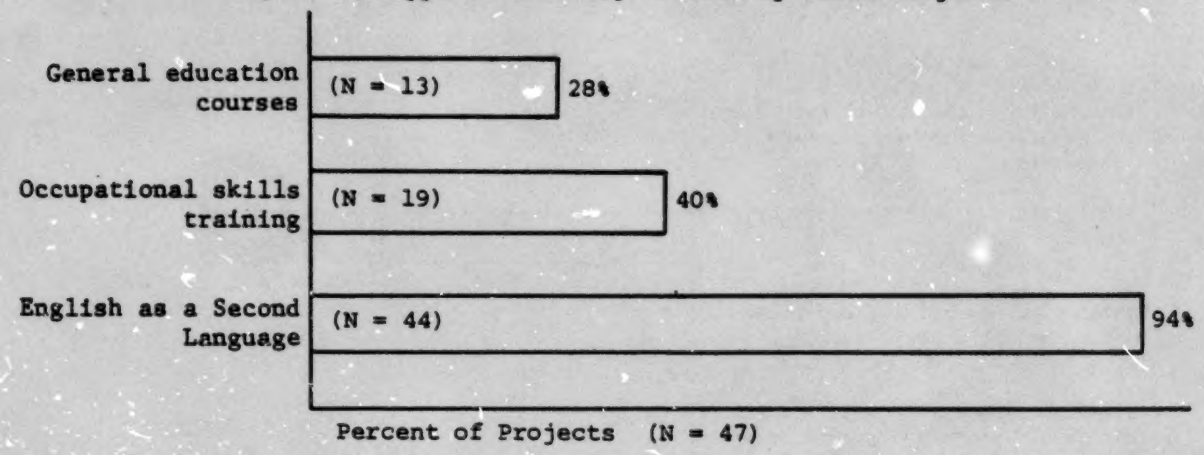
A few projects were designed to develop curricula or bilingual, vocational, and linguistic materials. Honolulu, for example, developed culturally oriented English as a Second Language curricula in auto body repair and nursing.

2.2: Types of Training and Services

Projects tended to emphasize three types of training: English language, occupational skills, and general education. About 90 percent of the projects provided combinations of these. The principal training, however, was ESL. More than 90 percent of the PLESA projects conducted some form of ESL instruction (see Figure 1). Another 40 percent provided some form of occupational skills training, most often in conjunction with the ESL program. The skills taught ranged from training in accounting and clerical work to paramedical and welding courses. In addition, more than a quarter of the projects gave some instruction in general education subjects, such as mathematics and science.

There were some differences by

Figure 1: Type of Training Offered by PLESA Projects



NOTE: Totals exceed 47 projects and 100 percent because many projects offered more than one type of training.

region in the types of training offered. For instance, projects in the Northeast (Regions I and II) tended to be small. In Region II, all the projects offered ESL instruction combined with occupational skills training. The projects in the Far West (Regions IX and X), on the other hand, were usually large and fewer of them provided occupational skills training.

Many projects also provided all or some of the traditional employment-related services that are routinely offered by the prime sponsor, such as recruitment, selection, assessment, counseling, job development, placement, follow-up, and supportive services, in addition to the training and instruction. These related services were usually made available either through Title I or through Title III; in a few cases, a subcontractor or community organization provided some of the services and paid for them with non-CETA funds.

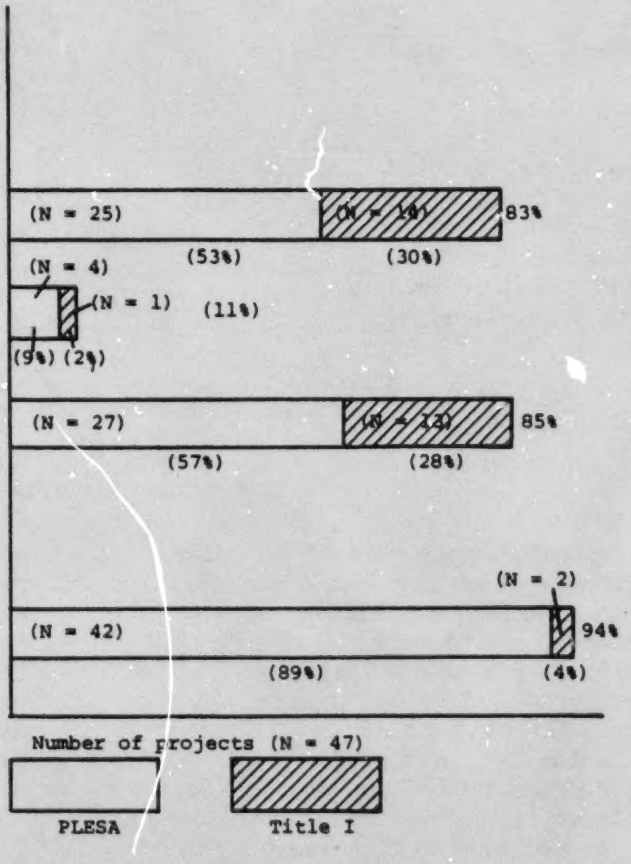
2.3: Federal Priorities That Were Emphasized

CETA regulations required prime sponsors to provide services for people of limited English-speaking ability that would meet the six requirements described in Chapter 1. Sometimes prime sponsors provided these services through their PLESA grants. Sometimes they used Title I or other funds. Some prime sponsors used PLESA funds to provide some services and Title I to provide other services. In some cases the services were not provided at all, as Figure 2 shows.

None of the projects taught occupational skills in the primary

Figure 2: Federal Priorities Emphasized by PLESA Projects

1. Teaching of occupational skills in the primary language of such persons for occupations which do not require a high proficiency in English.*
2. Developing new employment opportunities for persons limited in English-speaking ability.
3. Developing opportunities for promotion within existing employment situations for such persons.
4. Disseminating appropriate information and providing job placement and counseling assistance in the primary language of such persons.
5. Conducting training and employment programs in the primary language of such persons.*
6. Conducting programs designed to increase the English-speaking ability of such persons.



*Not Provided

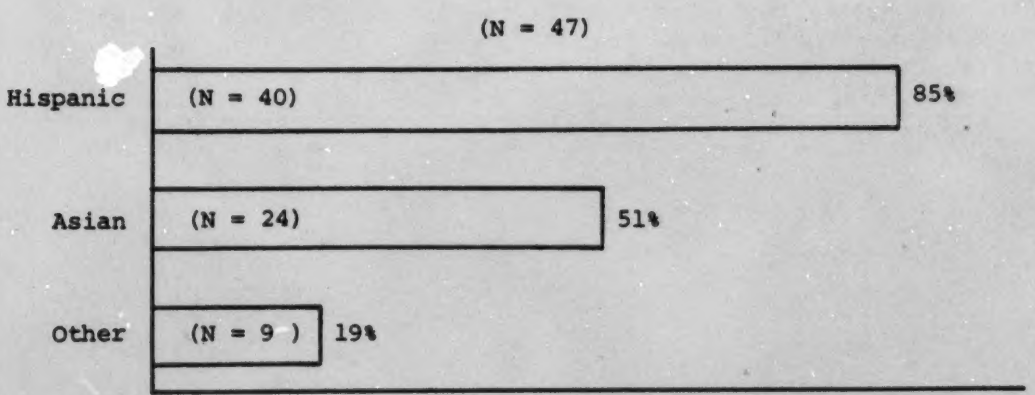
language (requirement 1), nor did they conduct training and employment programs in the primary language (requirement 5). (The rationale for this is discussed in Chapter 8, section 8.5.) Some projects had bilingual instructors, but instructions were usually offered in the native language only if it was felt that the students could not first understand in English. On the other hand, the development of new employment opportunities (requirement 2) was an area that all but eight of the projects addressed. Interestingly, a third of the projects provided these activities through the prime sponsor's regular program supported by Title I which was combined with Title III. Very few projects developed promotion opportunities (requirement 3). The reasons reported for this was that most projects dealt primarily with unemployed rather than underemployed persons.

2.4: The PLESA Participants

The approximately 6,500 persons served by the PLESA projects spoke many different languages and came from a variety of backgrounds, although the majority were Hispanic and Asian. Almost half of the projects served more than one target group, as Figure 3 shows.

The Hispanics who participated were mostly Mexican-Americans and Puerto Ricans, but there were some Central and South American immigrants, as well as a few Cubans, Spanish, and Portugese people. Most of the Asian participants were either Vietnamese refugees, Koreans, or Filipinos, but there were also Cambodians, Chinese, and a few Laotians, Burmese, Japanese, and Thais. A few of the projects served very unique target groups. For example, one project in Pennsylvania was designed for Russian immigrants. Another project served Gullah-speaking residents of South Carolina's Sea Islands. Native Americans were enrolled in several projects, but no PLESA projects were designed exclusively to serve them.* A few projects served Haitians and a small project in Massachusetts had some Armenian participants.

Figure 3: Target Groups of PLESA Projects*

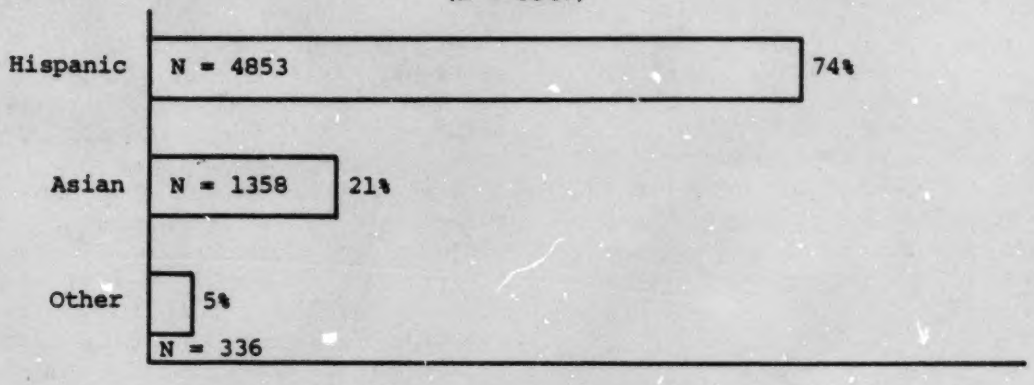


*Since some of the projects served more than one target group, the totals do not add up to 47 projects or 100 percent.

*Problems of Native Americans have been addressed in a separate Title III Special National Program.

Figure 4: PLESA Participants

(N = 6547)



2.5: Project Locations

The distribution of the projects can be seen in the accompanying map, which shows some variations by region. A cluster of projects in the Northeast (Regions I and II) served primarily Hispanics. Regions III and IV had only two projects each; they served Vietnamese, Russians, and Gullahs. The projects scattered around Region V served mostly Hispanics. A larger cluster for projects in Region VI (mostly in Texas) also served Hispanics primarily. The five projects in Region VII and VIII served Hispanics, Asians, and native Americans. The projects in the Far West (Region IX and X) accounted for the bulk of the Asians served by PLESA, but these projects also served a large number of Hispanics.

Figure 5: Geographic Distribution of PLESA Grantees

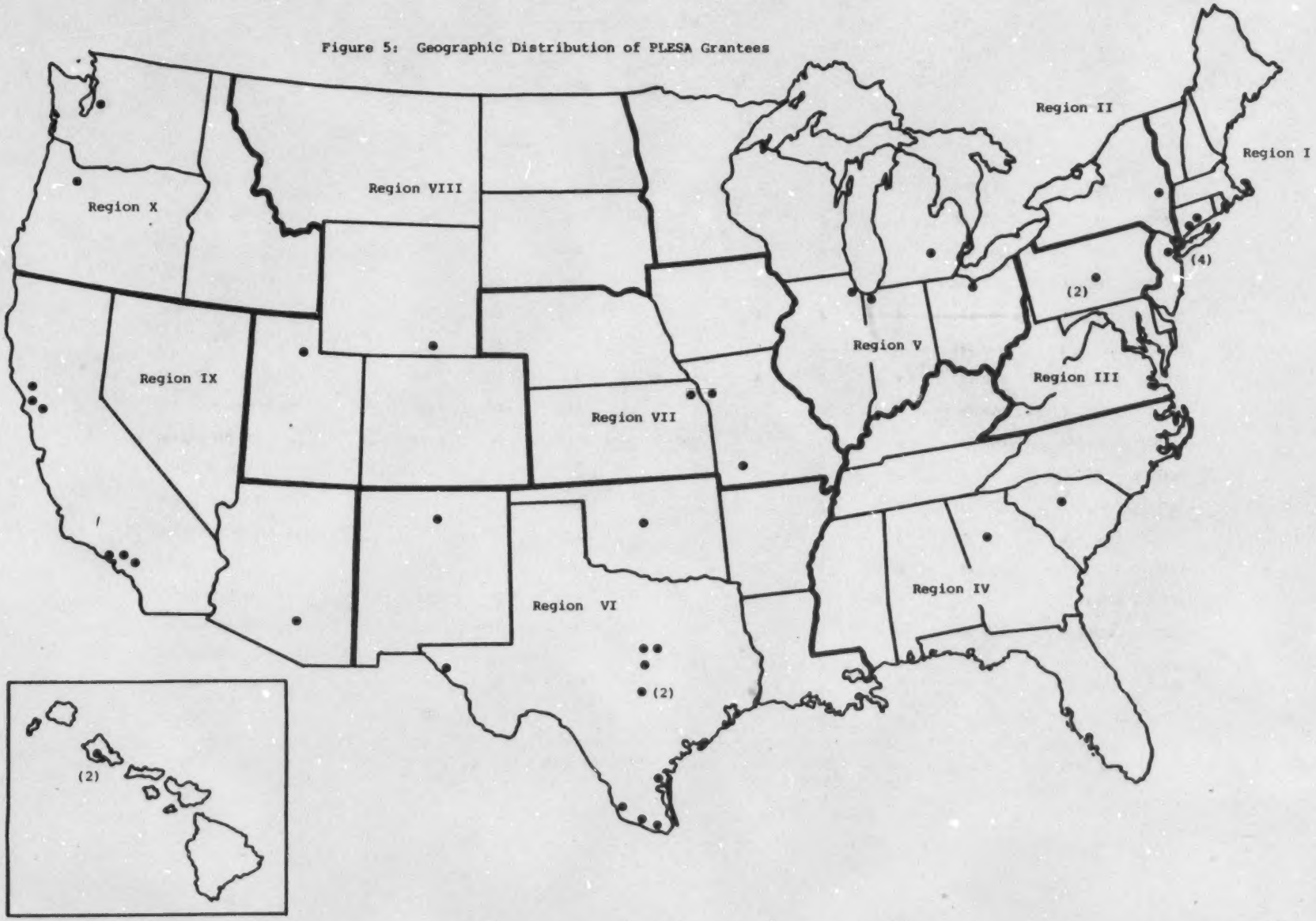


TABLE 1: Summary of PLESA Projects

REGION	LOCATION	PARTICIPANTS					TRAINING AREAS*			GRANT AMOUNT	GRANT PERIOD
		PLANNED NUMBER	ACTUAL NUMBER	HISPANIC	ASIAN	OTHER	ESL	OCCUP. SKILLS	GEN ED		
I	Bridgeport, CT	12	11	11	-	-	Y	Y	N	$40,000	10/1/76 - 9/30/77
	New Haven, CT	40	23	23	-	-	Y	Y	Y	52,260	4/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Cambridge, MA	13	13	2	-	11	T-I	T-I	N	80,540	4/1/76 - 6/30/77
II	Bergen County, NJ	55	110	98	-	12	Y	Y	N	100,000	6/30/76 - 6/29/77
	Elizabeth, NJ	52	53	53	-	-	Y	Y	N	75,000	7/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Jersey City, NJ	240	135	135	-	-	Y	Y	N	78,150	5/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Passaic County, NJ	80	65	65	-	-	Y	N	N	54,746	5/1/76 - 9/3/77
	New York City, NY	160	160	160	-	-	Y	Y	Y	218,508	7/1/76 - 12/1/76
	State of New York	40	37	37	-	-	Y	Y	Y	25,590	5/1/76 - 6/31/77
III	Philadelphia, PA	119	203	-	-	203	Y	Y	N	95,000	5/1/76 - 4/30/77
	State of Pennsylvania	467	407	216	191	-	Y	N	Y	95,000	7/1/76 - 9/30/77
IV	Atlanta, GA	428	334	315	19	-	Y	N	N	162,000	10/1/76 - 3/31/78
	State of South Carolina	41	48	-	-	48	Y	N	N	162,000	5/21/76 - 5/31/77
V	Chicago, IL	270	435	344	91	-	Y	N	N	103,500	7/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Rock Island, IL	30	40	40	-	-	Y	N	N	43,500	7/1/76 - 8/31/77
	Gary, IN	40	45	45	-	-	Y	N	N	60,000	7/12/76 - 6/30/77
	Lansing, MI	70	52	52	-	-	Y	Y	Y	103,500	7/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Cleveland, OH	398	422	422	-	-	Y	Y	Y	103,500	4/1/76 - 3/31/77

TABLE 1: Summary of PLESA Projects
(continued)

REGION	LOCATION	PARTICIPANTS					TRAINING AREAS*			GRANT AMOUNT	GRANT PERIOD
		PLANNED NUMBER	ACTUAL NUMBER	HISPANIC	ASIAN	OTHER	ESL	OCCUP. SKILLS	GEN ED		
VI	State of New Mexico	70	72	71	1	-	Y	N	N	$95,095	7/1/76 - 8/30/77
	Oklahoma City, OK	130	156	98	52	6	Y	T-1	N	63,570	7/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Austin, TX	66	43	19	24	-	Y	T-1	Y	87,440	3/1/76 - 8/26/77
	Corpus Christi, TX	49	59	55	4	-	Y	Y	T-1	87,440	3/1/76 - 4/30/77
	Cameron County, TX	168	393	393	-	-	Y	Y	Y	87,440	3/1/76 - 3/31/77
	Dallas, TX	72	107	96	11	-	Y	T-1	N	95,095	7/1/76 - 9/30/77
	El Paso, TX	64	64	61	2	1	Y	T-1	Y	87,440	3/1/76 - 2/28/77
	Ft. Worth, TX	225	207	76	131	-	Y	N	N	95,095	6/30/76 - 3/31/78
	Hidalgo, TX	735	646	646	-	-	Y	N	N	100,000	3/1/76 - 4/30/77
	McLennan, TX	195	306	271	35	-	Y	N	N	90,450	7/1/76 - 9/30/77
	Laredo/Webb, TX	36	36	35	-	1	N	Y	N	87,440	3/1/76 - 2/28/77
	State of Texas	185	75	75	-	-	Y	N	Y	95,095	7/1/76 - 6/30/77
VII	Kansas City, KS	68	64	56	8	0	Y	N	N	90,862	10/1/76 - 3/31/78
	Kansas City, MO	128	76	43	33	0	Y	N	N	40,000	3/29/76 - 9/30/77
	Springfield, MO	50	45	-	45	-	Y	N	N	25,528	3/29/76 - 3/28/77
VIII	State of Utah	45	59	59	-	-	Y	N	N	122,000	7/1/76 - 9/30/77
	State of Wyoming	77	63	38	20	5	Y	Y	Y	122,000	3/1/76 - 2/28/77

TABLE 1: Summary of PLESA Projects
(Continued)

REGION	LOCATION	PARTICIPANTS					TRAINING AREAS*			GRANT AMOUNT	GRANT PERIOD
		PLANNED NUMBER	ACTUAL NUMBER	HISPANIC	ASIAN	OTHER	ESL	OCCUP. SKILLS	GEN ED		
IX	Tucson, AZ	177	194	187	7	-	Y	Y	Y	$258,228	4/15/76 - 4/14/77
	Los Angeles County, CA	100	116	60	56	-	Y	T-1	T-1	160,000	10/1/76 - 9/30/77
	Oakland, CA	253	302	217	85	-	Y	Y	Y	240,804	10/1/76 - 9/30/77
	Orange County, CA	105	130	110	20	-	Y	N	N	150,000	3/15/76 - 3/14/77
	San Francisco, CA	98	124	-	124	-	Y	N	N	302,955	4/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Sonoma, CA	30	34	34	-	-	Y	N	N	70,000	4/1/76 - 12/31/76
	Ventura, CA	75	68	68	-	-	Y	Y	N	119,980	4/1/76 - 3/31/77
	Honolulu, HI	104	85	-	85	-	Y	T-1	T-1	178,883	8/1/76 - 12/30/77
	State of Hawaii	55	49	-	-	49	N	N	Y	50,000	8/1/76 - 6/30/77
	Las Vegas, NV	86	125	31	94	-	Y	N	N	160,000	7/1/76 - 6/30/77
X	Mid-Wilamette, OR	90	86	-	86	-	Y	T-1	T-1	90.800	2/10/78 - 2/9/77
	Tacoma, WA	200	170	36	134	-	Y	Y	N	90,800	7/1/76 - 6/30/77
	TOTALS	6,291	6,547	4,853 (N=40)	1,358 (N=24)	336 (N=9)	Y = 44 N = 2 T-1 = 1	19 8 20	13 30 4	$4,997,194	

*N = Not Offered
Y = Yes, offered
T-1 = offered through Title I

Part II: The PLESA Components

Chapters 3 through 7 describe how the PLESA projects were planned and organized, how clients were recruited, selected, counseled and trained, and how job development was conducted.

Each chapter follows a standard format. A summary introduces each chapter and points out the key lessons learned from the PLESA experience. The remainder of the chapter is divided into sections that deal with such program components as recruitment, selection, and counseling. Each section has three parts: a description of the approaches used, a discussion of the issues raised, and a list of recommendations.

Some of the areas under discussion overlap and some repetition is unavoidable, but it is hoped that by organizing the chapters in this way, users (prime sponsor and project staff) will be able to locate easily the material that relates to their functions, whether those functions are planning, recruiting, training, or job development.

Chapter 3
Planning and Organization

This chapter describes the approaches prime sponsors and projects used in planning, identifying the target groups, deciding on the length of training, organizing the projects, staffing them, budgeting funds, and providing for monitoring and evaluation.

In general, insufficient planning was a serious problem for the PLESA program. Many prime sponsors said that they did not have enough time to plan nor learn about the target groups and their needs. Consequently, most projects underestimated the amount of time it would take to serve PLESAs adequately.

Regarding organization, most prime sponsors selected one or more subcontractors to run the PLESA project, but there were many different organizational structures, and some worked better than others. Projects in which one agency had overall responsibility seemed to work better than projects in which authority was split along functional lines, with one agency responsible for intake, another for training, and so forth. Also, community-based agencies seemed to run more effective projects than did community educational institutions, due primarily to their greater contact with the ethnic community as a whole.

Staffing was consistently reported to be very important to the success of the projects. Teamwork was deemed especially essential, as was the ability of the counselors to speak the same language as clients.

The funding level created problems for some projects. In allocating funds, ETA expected prime sponsors to supplement the Title III grant with funds from Title I and other sources. In many cases this is what happened. Some services were paid for with PLESA funds and other services were paid for with Title I funds. Still, many prime sponsors noted that the costs of serving PLESAs are generally higher than those of serving other populations, and the grants were insufficient to make up the difference. Some prime sponsors felt that because PLESAs are a special target group, the grants should be large enough to cover the total cost of serving them.

How much it actually cost to serve a PLESA could not be determined. The projects did not record

expenditures in a way that made it possible to do this. Follow-up data on project performance were also incomplete. Most prime sponsors did no follow-up of participants and very little monitoring of the subgrantees that they used to carry out their PLESA projects. The reasons they gave were that the grants were too small, and since the PLESA program was designed as a onetime activity, evaluation would not be useful.

The principal lesson that emerges from the PLESA experience is that careful, systematic planning is a prerequisite to an effective project. A related lesson is that planning needs to be client-centered; that is, the background, problems, learning objectives, and placement goals of this particular population must be considered from the start.

3.1: Planning Strategies

Approaches

The PLESA program was a one-shot effort and prime sponsors reported that the notification of the availability of funds caught them off guard. Once the Request for Proposals was issued there was very little time to respond. Consequently, many prime sponsors prepared stock proposals that offered to provide more of the same services they were already providing under Title I, or that community-based agencies were providing under other funding. The proposals emphasized ESL, but some also included GED preparation or vocational training, employment counseling, job development, and so forth. Tucson, Cleveland, and almost 20 other projects submitted these standard types of proposals.

Some projects that originally did plan to do something different did not have enough time to work out the arrangements and so ended up putting the money into existing services provided by community agencies or local colleges. In Oakland, for example, the prime sponsor had planned to consolidate the activities of four community agencies and establish one centralized training center for PLESAs. Negotiations broke down and the prime sponsor decided to use the grant funds to support the ongoing services of two of the agencies.

Some projects did plan to initiate new services or serve a new clientele. Most of these projects had more difficulties than those which used the grant primarily to expand or modify current services. The Utah Balance of State planners, for example, found that they had seriously underestimated the time and resources needed to conduct a project for PLESAs. Kansas City, Missouri, had had no experience in dealing with its Vietnamese target population and had to guess at feasible objectives. Thus, according to the staff, most of the grant period was spent conducting the project by "trial and error."

In general, most of these projects did their planning without outside advice. For example, none sought technical assistance and only a few involved employers

and unions in the planning phase. There was not enough time, they said. Elizabeth and Cambridge did involve employers in the initial stages of their projects and this resulted in commitments to hire PLESAs even before the projects began. Unfortunately, neither project maintained sufficient contact after the initial efforts and thus the jobs disappeared.

A few projects planned to develop and test curricula or materials. New York State attempted to develop and test English language materials for Spanish-speaking drug abusers. Cameron County planned to develop a model delivery system and materials for English language instruction and basic education. McLennan County was supposed to translate and field-test the Adult Performance Level English Language Curriculum developed by the University of Texas. None of these projects was able to accomplish what was planned, again due in part to underestimates of the time required to do such work.

Two developmental projects that had more success were Honolulu and New Holland. New Holland added a vocational English section to an already functioning ESL resource library, and produced a selected and annotated bibliography. Honolulu developed and tested 31 ESL booklets and 30 vocational-education videotapes for training clients from Korea, Vietnam, and the Phillippines to become nursing aides and auto body repair workers. Except for the work of these two projects, the grants were not used for research, development or controlled experiments of new approaches.

Issues

The principal question facing most prime sponsors was: What is the best way to use a limited amount of PLESA funds? Should they provide more ongoing services? Demonstrate new approaches? Conduct research? Develop new materials? Most projects reported that they provided services for several reasons. First, the RFP required the prime sponsors to "provide training" and especially "training (that would enable) persons to speak and use the English language." Second, there was too little time to plan new approaches. Third, the grants were generally too small and the grant period too short to conduct research or demonstration projects. And finally, the need seemed so great that it made sense, many prime sponsors said, to use the money to help as many people as possible.

Several prime sponsors and projects felt that because this was a one-shot program, the money might have been better spent on research, demonstration, and development projects. But most prime sponsors, if given the chance again, said they would use the money to provide services. If money is allocated for PLESA in the future, it will be important to build in more planning and technical assistance resources. Otherwise, the tendency will be simply to re-fund what is already being done, because this requires little planning and lead time, or to attempt something new and run into problems because of insufficient planning.

Who should be involved in the planning process? Certainly if

planners are inexperienced in dealing with PLESAs, the advice of knowledgeable persons should be sought. Moreover, experience indicates that prime sponsors can expect to be more effective in both designing and operating PLESA projects if they have employers and unions involved in the whole process. Besides helping to identify selection criteria, skill requirements for jobs, and training needs, they can also be active job developers.

Recommendations

1. ETA should allow more time for planning of special emphasis programs like PLESA.

2. Prime sponsors and projects should allow more time for detailed, operational planning of PLESA services, particularly if the project is a new one.

3. If prime sponsors plan to develop new PLESA projects, and are inexperienced in their delivery, they should seek technical assistance in planning and organizing their projects through the manpower institute program. Other sources might be regional training centers and DHEW.

4. Prime sponsors and projects should involve potential employers and unions in the planning process.

3.2: Identifying the Target Group

Approaches

Most prime sponsors had very little data to use to identify the target groups in need of service and their specific training needs. For instance, the 1970 census data that was available was outdated and did not identify PLESA as such. Moreover, PLESAs tend to be underestimated in census data in any case. Thus, projects relied on other approaches. Tucson relied on experience and informal discussions with community agencies to identify its target group; so did New York, San Francisco, and most other areas.

Oakland's approach was fairly representative. The prime sponsor used the PLESA grant to support the ongoing services of two community agencies the Educación Para Adelantar (EPA) and the Oakland Chinese Community Council (OCCC). EPA's clientele is the city's Spanish-American community, both residents and new immigrants. OCCC serves the Chinese community, also made up of residents and immigrants. Both groups already had

ongoing community programs, including ESL, GED preparation, and office skills training. They also had long waiting lists of individuals who wanted to get into these programs.

Neither agency had a formal procedure for identifying the needs of potential clients. They used the 1970 census data and other available demographic statistics to describe the magnitude of the need. And the demand was apparently large enough that formal procedures for identifying the individuals who needed services were unnecessary. The number of individuals to be served in Oakland was determined largely by dividing the money available by the subcontractor's projected cost of serving a client.

Other projects used demographic data more specifically to identify those who needed to be served. For example, Hawaii used immigration data to estimate the number of PLESAs in the state. Filipinos, Koreans, and Vietnamese were the largest groups and were identified as the groups most in need. The project staff later determined that these groups had different needs. For instance, the Filipinos knew how to speak English, but had a heavy accent. They needed to improve their conversational skills, especially pronunciation. The Vietnamese had little or no English training but had a working knowledge of English because of their recent exposure to Americans. The Koreans had the most difficulty speaking and were also particularly shy.

Most of the projects assumed that "PLESA" referred to immigrants or first and second generation Americans who had not learned English in school. The principal target groups identified generally

WHAT IS A PLESA?

CETA legislation did not give an operational definition of what was meant by a "Person of Limited English-speaking Ability." Many projects found that they needed a definition. Is a PLESA someone who speaks no English--a monolingual? Does the definition include those who speak some English, or those who are more fluent but have a limited vocabulary or pronunciation problems? Is the definition limited to <u>speaking</u> ability or does it include limited reading, writing, and comprehension ability also?

Tucson was one project that attempted to come up with a definition of a PLESA. Their first one was general rather than operational: "Someone who is not a native speaker of English." Recently, Tucson set a new operational definition that excludes the person who speaks no English at all: "A person of <u>limited</u> English-speaking ability is a level three ESLer." Level three refers to a score between 200 and 300 on the Ilyin testing scale--an intermediate-level competence.

followed the geographic distribution of Hispanics and Asians around the country. In the East and Midwest, Puerto Ricans were usually identified as PLESAs; in the Southwest, it usually was Mexican-Americans; in the far West, it was Mexican-Americans and Asians. But others were also identified--Haitians, Armenians, and Portuguese in Cambridge; Russians in Philadelphia; and Gullahs in South Carolina. Vietnamese refugees who had been settled in selected areas around the United States were identified as target groups in Pennsylvania, Georgia, Kansas, Wyoming, Utah, Texas, Nevada, California, Oregon, Washington, and Hawaii.

Issues

Who should be the target group of PLESA programs? The CETA legislation and the RFP provided a broad definition: "The term 'limited English-speaking ability' shall mean an inability to speak English which impairs a person's ability to seek or obtain employment and whose normal language is other than English." Although this seemed enough at first, most projects learned that they needed a more specific operational definition. Identifying PLESAs by demographic characteristics was too crude. English-speaking ability varied not only among the various groups, but within them. Some Spanish-speaking Mexican-Americans, for example, were well-educated and could read English but had never learned to speak it. Others were illiterate in both Spanish and English and had to learn to read and write in their native language before they could be taught English.

Lacking more specific definitions or guidelines, the projects identified their target groups in broad terms, usually without regard for level of English-speaking ability. Thus, some projects had illiterates and advanced students in the same courses. Many found that they couldn't run effective projects this way. They could be much more effective when the students were closer to the same level.

Then, the next question arose: What was the appropriate level for entering students? Some projects planned to take only the uneducated, monolingual, unskilled PLESA, the "hard core" most in need of help. Others thought they would have a better chance of success if they took people who had some education, spoke some English, or had some skills. This led to charges that some prime sponsors were "creaming," that is, taking the best qualified candidates. However, the reality is that within a six-month training period there is very little that can be done to prepare illiterate and unskilled PLESAs for jobs that require language and occupational skills.

Should prime sponsors take the most qualified applicants or concentrate on the hard core? In theory, CETA was designed to help the hardcore unemployed get the training and services they needed to get jobs. But such people are often difficult to help in the short time that CETA programs have to work with them. They tend to need at least a year of English and adult basic education before they are ready for employment-related English and occupational skill training. And, it costs more to help them because they

THEY COME IN AT DIFFERENT LEVELS

Some PLESAs entered a project as functional illiterates with no skills; others were semi-skilled but spoke no English; still others were skilled and spoke some English. Here are some of the criteria that projects found were important in setting their own definition of a PLESA:

Literacy: Can the person read and write any language?

English language ability: How well can the person
- speak
- listen
- read
- write?

Educational level: What functional level of education does the person have?

Vocational/occupational skills: What skills does the person have and are they marketable?

need more services and longer-term training.

Which is better--to help many who need only a little help, or, a few who need a lot of help? Tucson chose the former approach and was very successful. Candidates had to have a seventh grade education to be eligible for skills training. One hundred fifty clients, or 77 percent of all who entered the Tucson project, were placed in jobs. Cleveland, on the other hand, worked with the hard core--and more of them--and was less successful. Only 34 percent of their 422 clients were placed.

Since "hard core" PLESAs appear to need general ABE, literacy, and English training before they are ready for job-related English and skills training, it may well prove more effective for prime sponsors to recommend that such preliminary training needs be served through other agencies. For example, HEW-sponsored ABE programs and English classes run by a number of community agencies already offer such training.

The problem for prime sponsors in making such recommendations at this time is that the PLESA definition is so broad and the CETA commitment to serving the hard core so definite that failing to meet the needs of the "hard core" directly may be interpreted as "creaming." More specific guidance at the national level and better information on types and numbers of PLESAs needing services at the local level may both be needed if planning is to be made more responsive to clients' employment-related needs.

Greater coordination between DOL and DHEW services would also be helpful. This could result in an integrated and comprehensive approach to serving the full range of PLESA needs.

Recommendations

1. Prime sponsors should develop more precise information on the types and numbers of PLESAs in their areas and the specific needs they have for training.

2. ETA should develop a specific operational definition of a PLESA to enable prime sponsors to identify the target group intended to be served by CETA legislation.

3. Prime sponsors should carefully define which subset of the PLESA population they plan to serve and develop employment and training services to meet the specific needs of that group.

4. ETA and DHEW should sponsor basic research into the employment and training needs of PLESAs, the types of jobs for which they can be trained in different periods of time, and the English language requirements for various occupational fields.

3.3: Length of Training

Approaches

Some projects offered only 100 hours of ESL instruction, many offered from 12 to 16 weeks, quite a few offered six months, and a few offered a whole year. However, as mentioned earlier, practically all of the PLESA projects underestimated the amount of time needed for the training. One project, for example, after realizing that four months of training was not enough, put the students through a second four-month cycle.

Projects that offered vocational training also found that more time was needed for training. Laredo, for example, took six months to teach the PLESAs what is normally a three-month vocational course. The problem there was not only lack of English ability, but also lack of basic education. Many projects found that they needed to begin with remedial education, particularly mathematics and reading.

In another case, Salem planned to offer six months of ESL followed by six months of vocational and on-the-job training. As soon as the first class of students was formed the staff realized that six months wouldn't be enough. The prime sponsor revised the objectives to provide one year of ESL to be followed by vocational training, more ESL under Title I, or both.

Issues

How long should a PLESA program be? The amount of time needed for ESL and other training apparently depends on the language and educational level of the client on entry. In general, the less one knows, the longer it will take for training. An unskilled, inexperienced, monolingual, and illiterate PLESA may require two to three years of training. First, he or she will need to learn to read and write in the native language; next comes basic education; then comes English; finally, skill training. Some of this training can be conducted concurrently, but most project staff who had any experience with this hard-core type of client felt the training should be done sequentially.

If the client is already skilled in a trade and is literate in his or her own language, then English instruction may be all that is needed. San Francisco found this out. The Vietnamese refugees that the project was serving were generally skilled, well-educated, and accustomed to classroom instruction. They learned quickly and got jobs quickly. But, the next wave of Vietnamese refugees, the so-called "boat people," is likely to be less educated. They will probably need much more training and assistance.

Some of the project staff said they realized that there was not enough time in the PLESA grant to teach people all they needed to know to get and hold a job. So, they planned to concentrate on ESL and basic education. Those who completed the PLESA project were then to be enrolled in skills training. In effect, these projects used PLESA as a feeder to the prime sponsor's regular Title I services. Some projects that had planned to offer the full complement of English and occupational skills training within the grant period soon realized that they could not, and changed their plans.

In general, ETA, regional offices and the prime sponsors can expect that programs for PLESAs will take longer than six months, even when the clientele is not the "hard core." Clients who have skills and are educated can benefit from a one to four-month ESL program, but those who are less skilled and educated will need much longer programs, probably at least a year. Monolingual clients who are also unskilled and uneducated (the "hard core") will need three or four years to complete basic education, English and skills training.

Recommendations

1. Prime sponsors should either allow much more time for serving those PLESA clients who need literacy, basic education, and skills training in addition to ESL or consider referring such "hard core" clients to ABE and general ESL programs funded by other agencies for preliminary training.

2. Prime sponsors should develop separate courses for PLESA clients who need: (1) ESL only; (2) ESL and skills training; or (3) ESL, skills training, and remedial education.

3. ETA should sponsor a series of specific demonstration projects for serving different levels of PLESAs. These would serve as models for future projects.

3.4: Organizing the PLESA Project

Approaches

Most of the PLESA projects were administered by Title I prime sponsors who used subcontractors to provide training and other services. Only three prime sponsors, in Bridgeport, New Haven, and Las Vegas, ran the projects themselves.

Bridgeport had a small grant to train 12 Hispanics in building maintenance and English. The prime sponsor hired an instructor who ran the entire project. New Haven used existing staff to provide ESL, on-the-job training, and other CETA services to 23 Hispanics. Las Vegas hired six people to run its $160,000 project, which provided ESL instruction to 125 clients. The Las Vegas prime sponsor integrated the program into its service system: Title III staff provided instruction and counseling; Title I staff provided job development, support, and other services. All three of these projects reported administrative problems. The projects were generally too small to demand sufficient attention, the prime sponsors said, and they tended to suffer from a lack of coordination with other CETA services administered by the prime sponsors.

When prime sponsors used one or more subcontractors to provide services, they went about it in many different ways.

One way, which we will describe as a client-oriented organization, had one agency or subcontractor responsible for the project. Thus, some prime sponsors, like Cleveland and Gary, gave all the grant funds to one subcontractor who provided all of the services--recruitment, counseling, ESL, vocational training, job development. Others, like Orange County and New York City also used the client-centered approach but they split the money between two subcontractors, each of whom picked a client group and provided them with the full range of services. For example, Orange County subcontracted with one community group to provide training and services to Hispanics, and with another to provide the same services to Asians. New York City used two different community agencies to provide services to Puerto Ricans who lived in different parts of the city.

Still other prime sponsors divided their grants among more than two independent projects, often geographically dispersed,

each of which provided all the required services to its client group. Utah and Pennsylvania did this. Utah split up its grant among three subcontractors, each of which ran an independent ESL program in different parts of the state. Pennsylvania split up its grant among four subcontractors in different parts of the state.

The other major approach is one we have termed functional organization. Many prime sponsors split up functions by subcontracting out some services and providing the rest themselves. Typical of this approach was the El Paso project which made a contract with the Bilingual Institute to provide 32 weeks of ESL instruction. The prime sponsor provided counseling, job development, and supportive services through Title I.

Another functional approach was used by Kansas City, Kansas, which organized its PLESA project on three tiers. The prime sponsor was responsible for setting objectives, selecting the curriculum, staffing, and monitoring. A contractor was responsible for recruitment of clients, selection, assessment, counseling, and job development. That contractor made a subcontract with a third organization to provide the ESL instruction.

Wyoming probably represents the extreme in functional subcontracting. In fact, the project was designed as an experiment in community organization. The prime sponsor wanted to demonstrate that local community organizations could work together to identify, counsel, train, and find jobs for the non-English-speaking, hard-core unemployed. Four subcontractors were involved: Community Action of Laramie County was responsible for recruitment of clients; Laramie County Community College was responsible for training; the Employment Security Commission disbursed allowances; and SER Jobs for Progress, Inc., was responsible for selection and counseling of clients, job development, and follow-up.

In addition to the wide variety of organizational structures, projects used a diverse range of subcontractors. Most prime sponsors selected either community agencies or community colleges. Some selected adult learning centers, such as the Hidalgo-Starr Cooperative for Adult Programs in Hidalgo County. A few projects made contracts with private firms. For example, Fort Worth selected the Berlitz School of Languages and Passaic selected Worldwide Education Services, Inc.

The range of community-based agencies used as subcontractors was wide. SER, Jobs for Progress, Inc., was one of the most active community-based agencies involved in the PLESA program. Local SER affiliates were subcontractors in Gary, Chicago, Corpus Christi, Dallas, Santa Fe, Cheyenne, Tucson, and Orange County. Other community-based agencies involved as PLESA subcontractors included the Puerto Rican Forum in New York City; the Jewish Employment and Vocational Service in Philadelphia; the YMCA in Reading; the Korean American Community Services in Chicago; the Springfield Area Council of Churches in Springfield; and the United Chinese Restaurant Association in Los Angeles, among others.

The community college subcontractors also encompassed a wide range of educational institutions, including local school districts, school boards, and universities. For example, among subcontractors in this category were Union College in Elizabeth, Widener College in Chester, the Atlanta Board of Education in Georgia, Black Hawk Junior College in Rock Island, the Lansing School District in Michigan, the University of Texas in Austin, Laredo Junior College in Texas, the Utah State Board of Education; the University of Hawaii's community college system; and Chemeketa Community College in Salem.

Issues

What is the best way to organize a PLESA project? The most important consideration seemed to be whether a project was organized along "client" or "functional" lines. In the former case, which seemed to work better, one subcontractor was responsible for providing all the services; in the latter, several subcontractors split up the services.

In the case of divided responsibility, often no single person or agency was accountable to the client. Each one dealt with only a part, not the whole, person. In the client-oriented organization, the staff got to know the client's strengths and weaknesses, and they seemed more willing and able to work with that person to achieve the client's goals. Communication and coordination among the key staff seemed to be easier and reportedly occurred more often when the staff was located in one agency.

The organizational pattern was not the single most important element. Coordination among the key staff, particularly the counselors, instructors, and job developers, was probably even more significant. Some projects, such as the one in Tucson, were successful despite a functionally differentiated organization, because the staff from the different agencies worked together and coordinated their efforts. Other projects, such as Cleveland's, were less successful even though they were superficially organized along client lines, with one subcontractor responsible for all services. Internally, Cleveland's subcontractor was actually organized by discrete functions, and there was little communication and coordination among the key staff.

In general, prime sponsors can expect to have more successful projects when they choose subcontractors who can provide all of the services needed rather than choose one subcontractor for recruitment, another for instruction, a third for job development, and so on. With a number of contractors involved, both coordination and overall management become more difficult. Also, different types of organizations with different philosophies and approaches may compete, thus compounding the difficulties, particularly if the agencies have not worked together before. For example, the projects in Atlanta, Jersey City, and Cheyenne, which were conceived just for the PLESA grant, brought together subcontractors that had never worked together, and all three had problems. In Jersey City, the prime sponsor finally had to take control of the project

when one of the subcontractors did not perform well. In Cheyenne, poor communication among the subcontractors and unclear definitions of roles were problems that hindered progress. Coordination and communication were also problems for the Atlanta project.

On the other hand, the projects in Sonoma and Ventura Counties and in Tucson used subcontractors who had ongoing working relationships, and appeared to operate much more smoothly. Their PLESA grants merely provided additional funds for processing more clients through existing programs.

As was the case with planning, time was a pivotal element in organizing the projects. The PLESA grants were essentially too short to allow experimentation with new types of organizational systems. Projects that brought subcontractors together for the first time reported problems in clarifying lines of communication, and in setting coordination procedures. There simply was not enough time, they said, to work out differences and to set up effective overall management.

Finally, the nature of the subcontractor chosen also seemed to make a difference, and community-based agencies seemed to be the most effective. The community-based agencies were locally run, advocacy agencies for their people. Many had been CETA grantees before and were well known to the prime sponsors. Many also already had programs in ESL, skills training, and job development and were able to use their PLESA funds to serve more people in an ongoing program. Because they knew the community, knew their people, and were known by employers, these agencies seemed to be more effective in recruiting, counseling, training, and developing jobs than the community colleges.

Most of the community colleges were selected because they had ESL or vocational training capability. But they were less involved in and knowledgeable about the community, the clients, and the potential employers for PLESA clients than the community-based agencies. Another problem was their approach to ESL instruction. Often, it was less practical and more academic than that provided by the community-based agencies.

In summary, prime sponsors are likely to have more successful projects if they choose a single, community-based subcontractor rather than community educational institutions or more than one subcontractor. This should be particularly true if the community-based agency already has ESL and vocational training capability. In the case of multiple subcontractors, those who had worked together before successfully also tended to work together more successfully in the PLESA program.

Recommendations

1. Where feasible, prime sponsors should organize their PLESA projects along "client lines", where one subcontractor provides all services, rather than along "functional lines," where several subcontractors provide only a part of the services.

2. Regardless of the organizational structure selected, prime sponsors should make sure that the counselors, instructors, and job developer coordinate their work to avoid fragmentation of responsibility for the client.

3. If a project is going to be organized functionally and more than one subcontractor has to be chosen, then prime sponsors should select subcontractors who have worked together successfully before. If this is not possible, time should be allocated during the planning phase for team building.

4. As far as possible, prime sponsors should make contracts with community-based agencies to run PLESA projects, since they have been the most effective in helping PLESAs.

3.5: Staffing

Approaches

Most projects hired some new staff specifically for the PLESA project and supplemented them with existing personnel who were working on other projects for the subcontractor or prime sponsor. For example, South Carolina hired a full-time project director/counselor, a full-time secretary/bookkeeper, two full-time teachers, and three part-time teachers, who also served as counselors. This staff was assisted by personnel from the employment office and Vocational Rehabilitation Center who helped with intake, client assessment, and job development.

Some projects, such as Tucson, did not hire any new staff. They used existing personnel and merely integrated the PLESA students into an ongoing program. A few projects "bought slots" in ongoing training programs and had no control over the training staff. For example, Austin subcontracted with the Department of Continuing Education of the University of Texas for ESL instruction, and the University used regular ESL staff for the training.

Issues

Who are the key staff for a PLESA project? Each project hired and used different types of staff, depending on the services they provided and how much existing staff they could use. But the key staff were generally agreed to be a project director/coordinator, ESL instructors, vocational instructors, counselors, and job developers. Most projects hired different people for each function, but a few, like South Carolina, combined functions, with the project director also acting as the counselor. In Utah one project director also developed the curriculum, provided the ESL instruction, and counseled the clients. However, this turned out to be too much for one person to handle and additional staff had to be hired.

How important is coordination and teamwork among staff? If job functions were highly divided, then coordination and teamwork became very important. If the staff did not work closely together the clients suffered. They were seen less as people and more as subjects to be trained, counseled, paid, or placed. The staff in such projects did not have a complete view of what the clients were like, how they were doing, and what happened to them at the end of the project. They tended to become isolated and dealt only with their "piece" of the client.

In addition to the importance of coordination and teamwork, several other staffing lessons were learned from the PLESA experience. Time and again sensitivity and a willingness to work extra hard emerged as one of the most critical predictors of staff success. Staff who were committed, empathetic, and cared about the clients were identified by clients and other staff alike as being the keys to a successful program.

Finally, what about the language and cultural background of the staff? Should they be of the same ethnic background as the clients? Should they be able to speak the same language? Most project staff felt that this was important for counselors, but not for the rest of the staff. Counselors have to be able to find out what bothers people and help them deal with very personal problems. Since most of the clients did not speak much English, it was important for counselors to be able to speak the client's language so that they could communicate freely. And, since many of the clients' personal problems were related to cultural issues, it was important for the counselor to understand the culture of clients.

For instructors and other staff, cultural empathy was reportedly more important than actually being from the same culture. The ability of personnel to speak the clients' native language was more important in some projects than others, depending usually on the type of training offered. For projects that were attempting bilingual vocational skills training, it was very important. Yet, in many ESL classes, it was deemed more important that the instructor be a native speaker of English than that he or she speak the clients' languages.

In general, prime sponsors

can expect to have more effective PLESA projects if they hire fully trained staff who understand the culture of the clients and speak their language. This is particularly true for the counselors. Also, projects will usually work more smoothly if the staff functions as a team and maintains a high degree of coordination.

Recommendations

1. Prime sponsors should structure PLESA projects to ensure teamwork and coordination among the key staff, especially counselors, instructors, and job developers.

2. Counselors should be able to speak the language of their clients, and preferably come from the same cultural background. This is less important for other staff, but all should be sensitive to cultural differences.

3.6: Budgeting

Approaches

Instead of developing a plan and then setting a budget for that plan, almost all prime sponsors began with a given dollar amount, and then figured out what could be done with that amount of money. However, in most cases, they supplemented their PLESA grants with Title I or other funds. That was perfectly acceptable. In allocating funds, ETA expected prime sponsors to use PLESA funds to provide for some services and Title I and other funds to provide for the remaining services.

Some prime sponsors used more outside funds than others. As noted earlier, Cambridge spent almost all of its grant on allowances and provided training through Title I. Its Title III cost per participant was approximately $6,000. Cameron County used its grant for training and provided all other services, including allowances, through Title I. Its Title III cost per participant was just over $200.

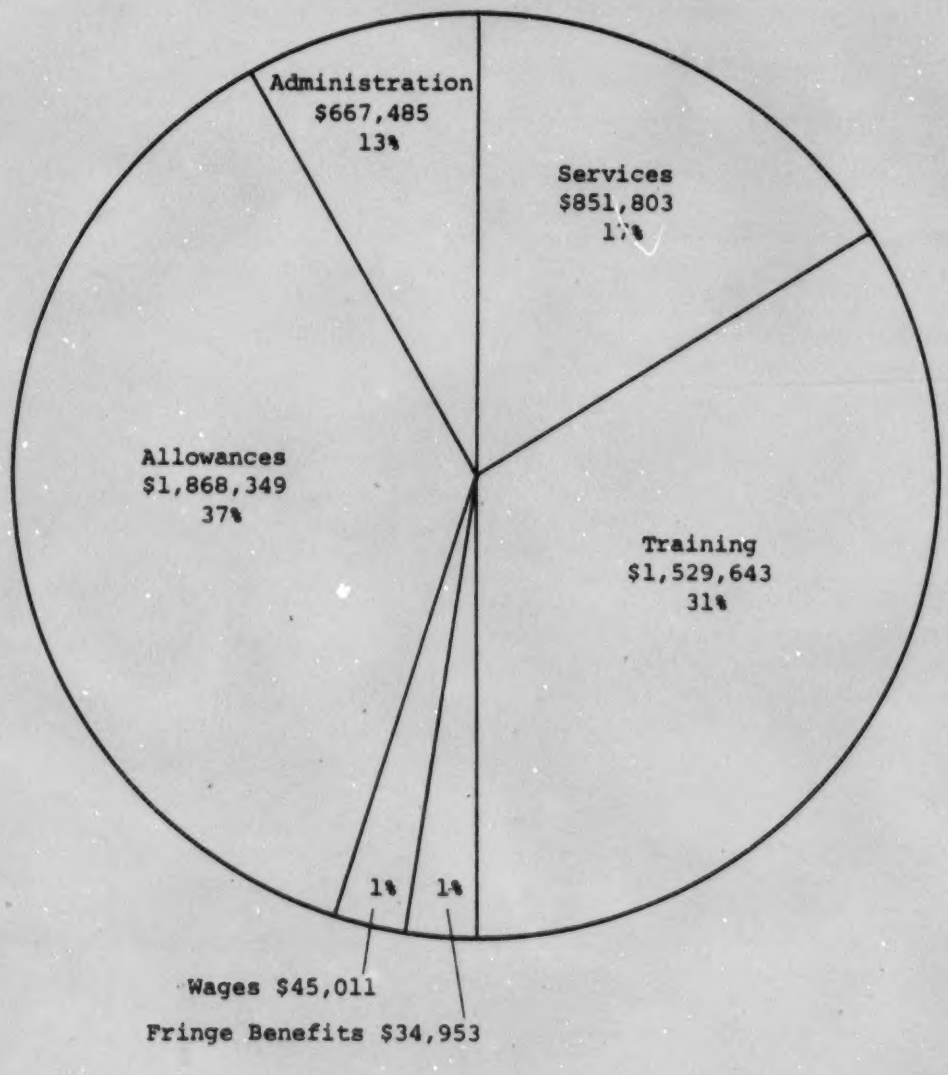
The largest cost item was allowances--37 percent of the PLESA funds were allocated to this one item. And, according to many prime sponsors, it is a necessary expense. For, as they pointed out, it is unreasonable to expect an unemployed person to enroll in a full-time, six-month training program without an allowance. As one official in Laredo said, "What student can come for eight hours a day without an allowance? What is he going to live on?" In general, for both those projects that did offer allowances and those that did not, this expense was viewed as an important one.

Support services were another costly budget item, accounting for about 17 percent of the PLESA funds. Many projects cut back on

such services because they became so costly. Day care and transportation were particularly needed by clients but could not always be provided.

For the most part, all of the other functions were underbudgeted as well. Thirty-one percent of the budgets were allocated to training, but many projects had to supplement this with training provided for under Title I. About 15 percent of the grant monies went to administration and wages and fringe benefits for staff, but this also had to be supplemented in many instances.

Figure 6: Cost Categories for PLESA Projects



Issues

How much should a PLESA project cost? It is not possible to compute the actual costs of the PLESA projects since most of the projects neither recorded nor reported actual expenditures for the non-Title III portion of the budget. But prime sponsors and project staff generally agree that they are expensive, probably costing between $5,000 and $10,000 per participant, although the official Title III cost averaged $800 per participant.

Practically everyone surveyed felt that the amount of money available was too small to offer a full range of services to any significant percentage of the PLESA population. A few grants were as small as $25,000. In some areas the prime sponsors divided a moderate amount of money between two or more projects. New York City, for example, divided $218,508 between two independent projects. Los Angeles divided $160,000 among three projects. As the prime sponsor in Cleveland said, "You can't do much with

WHO SHOULD PAY FOR PLESA?

A key issue that emerged during the course of this study is who is responsible for funding PLESA services? Many prime sponsors feel it is the responsibility of the national office to provide special funds for services that are mandated for special populations, such as PLESAs. These people have special needs, they argue, and that requires special funding. They would like to see funding for PLESA continued through special grants.

The national office feels it is the responsibility of the prime sponsors to provide services to PLESAs as a regular part of their CETA programs. The PLESA program was a one-time windfall to help prime sponsors build services for PLESAs into those programs. The prime sponsors have the responsibility for determining who will and will not be served by CETA in their communities. Furthermore, they are required by federal regulations to serve PLESAs under regular programs when they are a significant segment of the overall population in need. Finally, they argue, the reality is that further special funding for PLESAs is unlikely. If they are to be served at all, the local prime sponsors must assume the responsibility for paying the costs from other funds.

The problem, of course, is that PLESAs are expensive to train. Besides CETA money, prime sponsors may be able to get additional funds for PLESAs from federal and state vocational education programs, DHEW special programs for refugees and ESL instruction, and from Title XX allocations from DHEW to the states.

$100,000. Give us $500,000 and we'll set up a good demonstration." But only six projects had $150,000 or more to put into a single effort: Atlanta, Honolulu, Las Vegas, San Francisco, South Carolina, and Tucson.

As mentioned, most prime sponsors supplemented their limited PLESA grants with Title I and other funds. This explains why the "cost per participant" and the "cost per placement" reported by the projects vary so much--the reported figures are based only on the Title III expenditures. The real costs, which include Title I and other expenditures, are probably fairly similar for most projects.

In general, if ETA, through special grants, or the prime sponsors through regular funding expect to reach a significant percentage of the PLESA population, money will have to be allocated in larger sums. Costs of $250,000 to $500,000 for a single project would probably not be excessive.

Recommendations

1. ETA should conduct a study of the actual cost of providing different types of services to PLESAs so that prime sponsors can develop realistic budgets.

2. If the PLESA program is to be effective on a national level, much more money will be required and larger grants will need to be made to individual projects.

3.7: Monitoring and Evaluation

Approaches

Most prime sponsors did not evaluate their PLESA projects and provided only a minimal amount of monitoring. The reasons given most often were 1) the grants were too small to warrant much attention, and 2) the PLESA program was a one-time effort, so evaluation wasn't useful.

In Utah, for example, the prime sponsor pointed out that their rather small $122,000 grant was further divided among three subcontractors. Monitoring would have required as much paperwork and attention as a large grant, and the prime sponsor did not have enough staff to do this adequately. The Bridgeport prime sponsor noted that there had not been time to track its $40,000 PLESA project as it was only a small part of a very large ongoing operation.

The monitoring and evaluation that were done were usually informal, involving site visits and review of statistical, financial, and progress reports. Fort Worth's approach was informal, but nonetheless provided a good sense of what was going on. Its monitoring and evaluation consisted of: 1) periodic

site visits; 2) prime sponsor monthly staff reviews of the project's statistical and financial reports; 3) feedback from staff in frequent contact with the program; and 4) periodic observation of classes.

Some prime sponsors wrote specific performance objectives into their contracts with the provider agencies and used these to monitor performance. Springfield, Oakland, and San Francisco did this. San Francisco already had an elaborate performance monitoring and reporting system set up and added the PLESA grant to the system. The system allows the prime sponsor to aggregate data for all projects and to make comparisons among them.

San Francisco also assigned two staff members to monitor its two PLESA project subcontractors. Their role was to act as facilitators and liaison between the prime sponsor and the contractors. Several other prime sponsors used a similar approach and said that it worked. However, such an effort requires more staff, which adds to the bureaucracy and to administrative costs.

As for the data collected for DOL statistical reports, they were often incomplete and sometimes inaccurate. The data were supposed to be reported by the projects to the prime sponsors. Primes send them on to the regional offices which in turn forward them to Washington for compilation and analysis. As of this writing, ETA cannot provide an accurate count of the number of individuals who entered the PLESA program, were terminated, or were placed in jobs. There are several reasons for this:

Incomplete reporting. Some projects have not submitted the required data even though their contracts ended a year or more ago.

Disputed counts. A few subcontractors and prime sponsors have not been able to agree on the correct figures. This was a problem when a client was enrolled under regular Title I training as well as under Title III.

Double counting. Some projects enrolled the same individual two, three, or even four times and counted the person anew each time.

Issues

Because of the way the data were collected, it is not possible to provide breakdowns of the clients by national origin (Puerto Rican, Vietnamese, etc.) or complete information on the types of services provided (ESL only, employment services, etc.). Also, the data reporting categories did not include the six priority services mandated by the legislation and described in Chapter 1. Thus, it is not possible to tell exactly how many prime sponsors addressed, or how many clients received, the mandated services.

Monitoring by the regional offices was also minimal, and for the same reasons cited by the prime sponsors: small grants relative to the overall CETA program and the one-time nature of the PLESA program made evaluation appear unnecessary.

Evaluation of the PLESA program at the national level was not

part of the original plan. The Office of Program Evaluation and Research (OPER) was brought in when the program was almost completed. Thus, it was not possible to build in a standardized evaluation protocol, nor to set up the controls required to validate demonstration projects. If this situation is to be changed for future projects, the national office will have to take the lead since the need is for standardized monitoring and evaluation.

Recommendations

1. ETA should require monitoring and evaluation of special projects, such as PLESA. To ensure this, the Department of Labor could establish monitoring requirements for special grants such as this, and provide self-evaluation guidelines for the prime sponsors.

2. In the future, ETA should involve the Office of Program Evaluation and Research (OPER) from the start in special one-shot programs, such as PLESA. Special reporting requirements should be considered if full evaluation of the program is to be achieved.

Chapter 4
Recruitment, Selection, and Counseling

This chapter describes the various approaches that the PLESA projects took to recruiting, selecting, and counseling PLESA clients and some of the supportive services that were provided to them.

In general, most projects did not have any problem recruiting clients because the number in need was so great. Selection was a problem, and most projects found that the selection criteria they used identified only some of the important client characteristics. Some projects, which tried to stress economic need as a major selection criterion, found that their clients did not have enough education or skills background to complete the training offered. Others, which emphasized aptitude, didn't always get clients who were motivated to complete the program.

Assessment tools were hard for many projects to find. Some developed their own and some used commercial tests. Most projects felt that existing tests were not designed to serve this population.

Counseling and supportive services turned out to be very important. Many of the PLESAs had serious personal as well as vocational counseling needs. Most projects found that if these needs were not addressed the student's ability to learn, to get a job, and to hold a job was affected.

The principal lesson that emerges from the PLESA experience is that prime sponsors and projects have to understand and identify the special <u>needs</u> of PLESA participants if recruitment, selection, counseling, and supportive services are to be effective. Projects that did this appeared to have more success than projects that assumed PLESAs were like everyone else who needed a job.

4.1: Recruitment

Approaches

Recruiting enough clients was not a problem for most projects because the number in need was so great. Some projects had long waiting lists and merely identified applicants from those lists.

"We always have a waiting list of 2,000, and we get 25 to 35 applications daily," noted the Laredo prime sponsor. Cambridge had a backlog of more than 70 applications of eligible immigrants when its project was funded. Some projects, such as the ones in Bridgeport, Rock Island, and Tacoma, took referrals from Title I programs.

Some of the projects that advertised the PLESA program were swamped with applications. Sonoma had 200 applications for 30 openings. One of the New York City projects had over 300 applicants for 50 training slots a week after announcing the project. One of the San Francisco projects had over 400 applications for its first 20 openings.

A few projects did have difficulty finding appropriate applicants. One of the Orange County projects and the Tacoma project intially had problems recruiting Vietnamese, but both soon attracted enough candidates. Fort Worth had a different experience. The project was designed to serve Hispanics, but when it was advertised a large number of Southeast Asians applied. So, the staff revised the planned target group and served the Southeast Asians.

Laredo and a few other projects had difficulty recruiting females for training in male-dominated jobs, and males for many office jobs. Despite a specific recruitment effort, no females applied for Laredo's electrician's course and no males applied for the import-export clerk course. The prime sponsor attributes this to Latin culture in the area, where "a man is never a secretary and a woman is never an electrician."

The projects that mounted recruiting efforts used various approaches. The most typical were contacts with community agencies, mass media advertising, and referrals from employment services. Many projects used all of these approaches. In general, the project staff felt that word-of-mouth advertising through churches and community agencies was the most effective way to recruit clients.

A few projects developed innovative approaches to recruiting. Fort Worth conducted a telephone and mail survey, put on a street festival, and held a raffle. A project in Orange County used its quarterly luncheon with community agencies to promote the project. Project teachers and aides in McLennan County conducted a door-to-door recruiting campaign in one of the targeted barrios.

In Wyoming, a noteworthy feature of the project was its community-based approach to recruitment. The Community Action Agency had an ongoing outreach program in which local outreach workers went out daily into selected areas of the county to interview people in their homes about their needs. The PLESA project was added as one of the available services and when an outreach worker identified someone who needed help and was eligible for the project, the worker took an application and sent it in for processing.

Issues

Is recruitment necessary if there is a backlog of applicants waiting for services? Most projects seem to think it is if the "right" people are going to get into the program. Those on waiting lists may not be as much in need or as qualified as others in the community who have not applied for CETA assistance. And, persons whose English is poor, who are recent immigrants, or who are unaware of CETA services, may be difficult to identify without an aggressive recruiting effort.

What type of recruiting is best? According to the project staff, the grapevine works best. But some projects were very successful with mass media campaigns on television and, particularly, radio stations that broadcast in the language of the target groups. The Wyoming approach was probably the most comprehensive and accurate means of recruiting those in the target group, but it would not be feasible in many localities unless an agency was already conducting an outreach program.

Another important issue in this area concerns coordination and communication between the recruiters and the project planners. The recruiters need to know what criteria to use in identifying candidates, for screening should begin at this stage.

In general, prime sponsors can expect to have more effective projects if they actively recruit the types of people the PLESA project is designed to help. Since the need is so great, probably any type of recruiting effort will produce more people than can be served. Thus, screening should begin early.

Recommendations

1. PLESA projects should actively recruit clients, not just rely on waiting lists or referrals from Title I projects, if the most appropriate clients are to be enrolled.

2. Prime sponsors should develop clear recruiting criteria and guidelines so that screening of clients can begin at this stage.

3. Many methods of recruiting are effective, but the experience of a few projects indicates that the most effective may be house-to-house surveys. The next most effective approach probably is word-of-mouth advertising through community agencies.

4.2: Selection

Approaches

The PLESA projects used a variety of approaches to select participants. Some projects, such as Fort Worth and Ventura, left selection to Title I staff. But most did their own selection, at least in part. The approach used in Gary was fairly typical. Initial screening was done by a Title I intake specialist who determined if the applicant was eligible for CETA services. The specialist also did a rough assessment of the applicant's needs. Next, an appointment was made with a counselor who tried to determine whether the applicant's needs could be met by the PLESA project. If so, the applicant met with the instructor for testing. Both the Adult Basic Learning Exam (ABLE) and the California Test of Basic Skills were used, as well as an oral interview to determine English skills. Then the applicant met with the job developer to discuss vocational interests, goals, skills, and aptitudes. The counselor, instructor, and job developer--an employment development team--then met, to put together a plan to help that client through vocational training, ESL instruction, GED preparation, or job development. If the team agreed that the client could be helped by the project, the client was enrolled.

Some projects, such as Atlanta and Pennsylvania's Allentown and Reading projects, consciously avoided screening. There, anyone in need of services who met CETA eligibility criteria was accepted.

Most projects used both formal and informal assessment procedures. Structured tests and interviews with staff were the two most common procedures used. Very often they were used together, as in Gary.

The staff responsible for appraisal and selection also varied among the projects. Some projects had Title I staff do this; others did it themselves. Sometimes the instructors alone did the selection, and sometimes a team decided, as in Gary. The United Chinese Restaurant Association also used a team approach and found it successful because each team member represented a key component of the project (instruction, counseling, job development) and each knew what was required to be successful. The Association also felt that the team approach lessened bias.

Some projects used a neutral third party to certify eligibility and protect the projects from charges of bias. San Francisco had the state Job Services Office do this. They felt this worked well because the subcontractors could recruit and screen applicants, but were insulated by the Job Services Office from pressures to select any particular individual. Salem had a problem in this area because selection was done directly by the monitor from the prime sponsor's staff, who was also the intake officer and a Vietnamese besides. Some Vietnamese who did not get into the project blamed him personally, and this affected his standing in the community.

According to many project staffs, the most important part of

WIDELY USED ASSESSMENT TOOLS

PLESA projects used a variety of formal assessment tools to test language, educational, and skill levels of clients. Most projects found that no single test was adequate for assessing entry level skills or predicting success. The most commonly used tests were:

- Adult Basic Learning Examination (ABLE)
- Basic Occupational Language Test (BOLT)
- Beta Test
- California Achievement Test
- California Test of Basic Skills
- English as a Second Language Test
- English Language Structure Tests (Ilyin)
- Ilyin Oral Interview
- Institute for Intensive Language Learning Test
- Institute of Modern Languages Oral Proficiency
- The John Test, A Test of Oral Proficiency for ESL Placement
- Metropolitan Achievement Test
- Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency
- Michigan Vocational/Technical Performance Objectives
- Pictorial Test on Bilingualism and Language Dominance
- Test of General Ability
- Wide Range Scale

selection involved the criteria used. There was considerable variation here, but most projects used a combination of three general criteria: need, level of knowledge, and motivation.

Many of the projects that were designed to be offered in conjunction with existing Title I programs adopted the eligibility requirements of Title I. These said that participants must be unemployed, have a low income and only a part-time job and be seeking full-time employment, or be full-time employees with wages below the poverty level. These criteria, and limited English-speaking ability, were the most common measures of need.

CHOOSING SELECTION CRITERIA

Most projects found that selection was one of the most important, and difficult tasks in running a PLESA Project. It was particularly difficult to balance need, level of knowledge, and motivation in selecting clients. One project that tried was the Oakland Chinese Community Council. They tested, interviewed, and finally rated each applicant on six classes of criteria. Their system is outlined below.

Points	Category
5	Completion of application (neatness, completeness, English usage)
10	Family background (dependents, number in family who are working)
5	Educational background (general, level attained, technical)
20	Employment background (job skills, salary increases, promotions)
40	Availability for employment (job interests; acceptable alternatives; conditions regarding time, transportation, working conditions; physical ability)

The Oakland Chinese Community Council was particularly concerned with the individual's ambition, motivation to work, willingness to accept less than ideal working conditions, and general attitude. The rating form and system they used formalized these concerns, and those selected for their program were those with the highest scores.

Many projects added other criteria. Some would not take young people and some would not take older people; some would only take heads of households; some would not take more than one person from a family; some wanted to have several people from the same family in the same class. One project, Wyoming, assigned points to applicants based on various criteria of need and used them to select participants. For instance, a disabled veteran got eight points, a handicapped person got three, an ex-offender got two, and so on. Priority was given to those applicants who had the largest number of points.

Laredo would not allow participants to enter PLESA if they had already participated in a CETA program. Rock Island gave preference to candidates who had not received previous language training.

Level of knowledge was the second major selection criterion commonly used. It was often used as an indicator of aptitude as well as a measure for setting minimal prerequisites.

Projects generally attempted to assess language ability, educational level, or both. Almost all of the projects conducted oral interviews to determine language competence, but many found that such interviews alone rarely provided an accurate assessment of overall language level. Several projects attempted general literacy/education measurements, using the California tests or the ABLE test. However, these tests were not designed to measure language ability per se, and scores do not necessarily correlate with a person's ability to do well in training. In fact, one of Orange County's projects found a negative correlation. Those who did well on the tests did not do well in class. Philadelphia used the Beta Test initially but found that the correlation between the scores and success in the program was so low that the test was eliminated.

A number of projects used standardized language assessment tests, most often the John picture vocabulary test to measure verbal and reading ability, or the Ilyin test of oral proficiency. Scores on both the Ilyin oral and placement tests were used by some projects to ensure a minimum level of entry competence and to place students into basic, intermediate, or advanced level English training.

Some projects developed unique assessment procedures. The Cambridge projects used a four-part procedure to test speaking (through an interview), listening comprehension (through answering ten progressively harder questions), reading (through standardized tests), and writing (through completing an intake assessment form that was also progressively more difficult).

Quite a few projects used prior educational level as a screening criterion. Oakland only took people with five years or less of formal education; New York took those with six years or more; Cambridge took people between the eighth and twelfth grade levels; and Laredo took those with nine or more years of education. But many projects found that education level did not always reflect either actual level of education

attained or ability to do well in training. For example, New Mexico found that persons with an eighth grade Mexican education had roughly the equivalent of a fifth grade education in this country.

Motivation was the third major area scrutinized by projects. Many projects that did not consider this later said that it should be included in all future assessment. For example, Sonoma, Wyoming, and Oklahoma found that some of their clients would not take jobs after they had completed training. Some Asian wives of servicemen had taken the course to learn English and to get the allowances; they never intended to work. Other projects, like San Francisco and New York, were careful not to enroll these "stipend seekers," and they used detailed interviews in their assessment to probe motivation to work.

Issues

Most of the PLESA projects had problems with selection. Those that tried to select the most needy applicants sometimes found that they had enrolled illiterates or unskilled people whom they could do little to help in the training program they had designed.

Projects that emphasized aptitude often found that their test results were not useful in determining who would complete training and seek and hold jobs.

Which criteria, then, should projects stress in selecting PLESA participants? The PLESA experience indicates that need, level of knowledge, aptitude, and motivation should all be considered. How much weight is given to each must depend on what the project is designed to accomplish. For example, if the project is designed to train PLESAs for six months to get jobs as clerks, then selection criteria should be based on what can be accomplished in a six-month training course. Successful candidates will need a certain level of language and vocational aptitude as well as motivation to complete the course successfully and succeed as clerks. Selecting persons who do not meet these criteria will only cause frustration and failure.

Clearly, prime sponsors will have more effective projects if they match selection criteria with training objectives.

How to assess candidates accurately was another issue. The PLESA experience indicates that no single test was sufficient. In fact, many appeared to be misleading when used in isolation. In particular, tests designed to measure literacy did not necessarily provide accurate data concerning the full range of language skills possessed by candidates. Moreover, literacy levels in English are rarely accurate predictors of success in training.

Projects that used several assessment procedures seemed to have more effective results than those that relied on only one. Combinations of formal tests and informal interviews reportedly worked well. The interviews were particularly important for assessing motivation, but they were also helpful for assessing language skills.

Regardless of format, another question arose: Who should do the

assessment and selection? Using a neutral third party to certify CETA eligibility seemed to be an effective way of insulating the project staff from political and personal pressures. But assessment of knowledge level and motivation seemed to be done best by a team composed of the key project staff: counselors, instructors, and job developers. Using a team reduced the bias that is inherent in selection based on subjective interviews. Having people who will be responsible for helping the client reach his or her employment objective also seemed to make selection more realistic.

Finally, few projects involved employers or unions in the selection process. If this were done, it would probably be an effective way to identify the criteria that are important for employment and to co-opt employers and unions to help develop jobs for PLESA graduates.

In general, prime sponsors can expect to have more effective projects if they establish specific selection criteria for PLESA participants. The criteria that seem to be most relevant are level of knowledge, aptitude and motivation, as well as the need for help. And it is important that selection is based on what can be achieved in a limited training period.

Recommendations

1. Prime sponsors and projects should develop selection criteria that are based on what can be achieved in the course of training for PLESAs. Entry-level requirements should be established and used as selection criteria.

2. ETA should provide guidance that would assist prime sponsors in developing general selection criteria for PLESAs. Literacy in English should not be a criterion.

3. Projects should use both formal and informal assessment procedures to measure need, level of knowledge, English skills (particularly oral), vocational aptitude, and expressed motivation. These should be used in combination, since no single procedure or test can provide sufficient information. Projects should not rely on general literacy tests for selection.

4. ETA should determine whether it is feasible to develop a standard test for assessing the language level of PLESAs.

5. Where feasible, projects should use a neutral third party for eligibility certification. However, selection should be done by the project staff, preferably by a team consisting of the counselor, instructor, and job developer.

6. Projects should involve potential employers and unions in developing the selection and assessment procedures.

4.3: Counseling and Supportive Services

Approaches

Most projects provided some form of employment counseling. That is discussed fully in Chapter 7. This section is concerned with personal counseling and related supportive services.

Many PLESAs had problems that demanded counseling and assistance. Few projects anticipated the magnitude of this need. In providing employment counseling, the staff often found that they had to deal with personal anxieties and cultural issues as well as job issues. If the problems were not addressed, the staff found that the problems began to interfere with the student's ability to learn, to get a job, and to hold a job.

The problems that the PLESAs experienced ranged from marital difficulties, alcoholism and drug abuse, to finding housing and settling immigration problems. Many also needed supportive services, particularly transporation and child care. For, without such services, some clients could not attend training.

The Vietnamese refugees seemed to have some of the gravest problems of all. For example, in San Francisco the staff found that many of the refugees had held high level positions in Vietnam. They were depressed about their sudden change in status, concerned about their prospects, and full of anxieties about the types of jobs they could get. The staff said they referred serious problems, such as mental instability, to other agencies, but they learned to deal with the smaller personal problems themselves.

In Salem, the counselor was a refugee from Vietnam and was apparently very effective in helping the PLESA clients, most of whom were Vietnamese. He reported that many of the refugees experienced severe depression and loss of self-confidence, requiring personal as well as employment counseling.

Most of the projects provided counseling and supportive services either through Title I programs or by referrals to outside agencies. For example, El Paso provided bilingual counseling, transportation, and day care under Title I. Laredo did not deal with personal problems directly. If personal counseling or support were needed, the client was referred either to the counselor at Laredo Junior College or an appropriate community agency.

ARE COUNSELING AND SUPPORT SERVICES NEEDED?

Many PLESA projects underestimated the needs that their PLESA clients had for personal counseling and support services. The list below contains some of the more common issues and problems that projects reported a need to deal with.

- Marital relations
- Self-confidence
- Housing
- Immigration
- Alcoholism
- Transportation
- Medical care
- Family planning
- Absenteeism
- Tardiness
- Grooming
- Child care
- Legal problems
- Drug abuse
- Mental health
- Financial assistance

Projects that did not plan for counseling, soon realized it was needed. Neither project in New York City had even a part-time counselor budgeted, and the directors and staff felt that this was a serious lack. The project directors did counseling, but this took time away from other tasks. The instructors found out that it was difficult to be both an impartial instructor and a concerned listener to problems.

Other projects also found that having instructors double as counselors did not work well. Utah found that counseling was very important, but that if the instructors did it, they had no time for teaching. The Oakland project staff found themselves involved in personal counseling on marital, financial, and other problems that they did not feel they had enough time or expertise to deal with. Eventually they began turning these problems over to the Employment Development Department for referral to more appropriate agencies.

Most projects that did provide counseling used bilingual counselors. This was important because the clients had difficulty expressing themselves in English. A few projects that did rely on English-speaking counselors, learned that this did not work well. The clients just became more frustrated when they couldn't fully discuss their problems or understand the advice they received.

CULTURAL ISSUES--THEY'RE IMPORTANT

PLESAs are different from other economically disadvantaged people in two important ways. They don't speak English. And most of them come from other cultures. Prime sponsors need to recognize this in planning a project for PLESAs.

What can a prime sponsor do to prepare a training program for people from other cultures? Here are some of the things that were done or that prime sponsors suggested need to be done.

- Prepare for culture shock. San Francisco dealt with many Vietnamese refugees. They learned that these people needed counseling and support to overcome the shock of being uprooted from their native culture and settled in an alien environment. In general, refugees seem to suffer culture shock more than immigrants. Migrants from other states or territories suffer less and residents suffer least of all.

- Anticipate cultural ceremonies and holidays. In the middle of training, one Utah project found that the Native American students had returned to their tribes for tribal ceremonies. Not only did that interrupt training, but some never returned. Other projects learned that religious and national holidays must be identified and allowed for--otherwise, the students are distracted or don't show up.

- Prepare for conflict resolution. Most Asians do not like direct confrontation. It can be embarrassing. Los Angeles, Oakland, and several other projects set up buffer systems, whereby students and staff dealt with sensitive issues through a third party.

- Prepare for different work values. Many projects found that PLESA participants had very different values from other Americans where work was concerned. For example, Bergen County noted that its participants did not seek out further work when a task was completed. They wondered why supervisors failed to assign them more, while supervisors felt them to be shirking.

- Share cultural customs. Several projects encouraged participants to discuss their customs, display their national costumes, and in other ways share their customs with other PLESA participants and staff. This was good for morale and also a handy device for stimulating conversation.

Issues

Should counseling and support services be a part of PLESA projects? Most projects felt they should because the need is so great, and if services were not provided, it tended to jeopardize the training effort. Clients had particular difficulty in arranging for transportation and day care, and often missed class when services were not provided. As a result, many projects found that services had to be provided, either by the staff itself, or through referrals to outside agencies.

The main problem was that most projects did not budget funds for these services, and they are very expensive. In the future, the PLESA projects will either have to budget for these services or select individuals who do not need them, if that is possible.

Who should provide the services? Counseling was often done by regular program staff, but it is such an integral part of the PLESA program that it probably should be done by PLESA project staffs. The counselor was often a key staff member. If the Title I counselor can be a full member of the PLESA project team, then this should be an acceptable arrangement. If not, then a PLESA project will probably need its own counselor.

The PLESA experience demonstrated that the counselor should be bilingual, and preferably from the same culture as the clients. The counselor needs to be well-trained, sensitive, and supportive, and should have no other project duties. Projects that combined project director and counselor or instructor and counselor roles found this generally unacceptable.

In general, prime sponsors can expect to have more effective PLESA projects if they budget funds specifically for counseling and support services and employ a full-time, bilingual counselor to provide many of the services.

Recommendations

1. The prime sponsors and projects should budget funds specifically for counseling services for PLESA projects.
2. Counselors should be bilingual and preferably from the same cultural background as the PLESA client.
3. Prime sponsors should be prepared to deal with a variety of personal and cultural counseling needs as well as employment counseling needs.
4. Prime sponsors should be prepared to provide key support services, such as transportation and day care.

Chapter 5
English Language Training

This chapter describes the objectives prime sponsors and projects set for ESL instruction, the types of English taught, delivery approaches, and materials used.

ESL training was the one component that almost all of the projects had in common. However, types of training, delivery methods, and materials used differed significantly from project to project, as did client needs and expectations. A major question facing most of the projects concerned the kind of training that should be offered to meet both manpower goals and client needs. Most recognized that the training should focus on job-related objectives, using manpower-focused ESL (or MESL) instead of general purpose ESL, but many were unsure just what MESL should be.

The majority of the projects were far too optimistic in projecting the degree of English improvement that could be expected within the time frame allotted for courses. Some projects failed to recognize that a basic knowledge of English is required before clients can learn the English needed for jobs that require a high level of interaction with others. Other projects failed to match instructional methodology and materials to the job placement objectives that they set.

Projects that were successful in their training were generally those with prior experience in providing ESL instruction to vocationally-oriented adult. They had a better sense of the amount of improvement they could expect and, therefore, developed programs that related English directly to vocational needs.

The principal lesson that emerges from the PLESA experience is that for projects to be successful, course objectives need to be realistic and focused on the English that clients need to get and hold jobs.

5.1: Course Objectives

Approaches

There was really only one goal underlying all instruction and materials development provided by the PLESA projects: improvement of functional English language skills to such an extent that employability would be enhanced. Specific objectives, however, varied from project to project. They fell most often into one or more of the following categories:

- Improvement of basic survival skills
- Raising the level of client literacy (usually in conjunction with ABE instruction or GED preparation)
- Placement in unsubsidized employment
- Placement in jobs or enrollment in Title I training
- Enrollment in Title I training
- Improvement of job-related English.

Improvement of basic survival skills was an objective primarily among those projects teaching English to immigrants or clients with little formal education. The Utah project, for example, stated that survival English was taught so that participants could respond appropriately in English in work situations.

Raising the level of client literacy, most often either to a sixth grade level or to the level required to pass the GED exam, was an objective for projects dealing with low-education clients or high school dropouts. Cameron County, for example, developed a curriculum to combine ABE in Spanish with "transitional" ESL, to bring illiterate clients to a sixth grade reading level. New York City's Hunts Point program and the Gary project, among others, combined ESL and GED instruction.

Placement in unsubsidized employment was the primary concern for some of the projects. Orange County, for example, developed only placement objectives for its language programs.

Placement into jobs or enrollment in Title I training was the most common objective for projects not offering concurrent vocational training, and was prevalent among those offering skills training as well. Sonoma County and El Paso, among others, sought to build English capability both among clients with job skills and those who would go on to further training. Kansas City offered some skills training but also sought to improve English to the extent that clients would be able to benefit from further Title I training.

Enrollment in Title I Training was the stated objective for the Springfield ESL program, and the major objective for Oklahoma City. Interestingly, however, both these projects found themselves placing

people directly in jobs, due to client desire.

Improvement of job-related English was implicit in most projects' concern with English aimed at placement; however, a few projects explicitly targeted their training at developing the vocabulary and understanding required for a specific job. Bergen County's ESL and on-the-job training (ESL/OJT) project, for example, sought to provide the English needed for specific factory jobs. One of Oakland's projects targeted one of its course modules toward meeting such a specific objective as did the Puerto Rican Forum in its business English classes.

In some cases these terminal objectives were supported by specific performance objectives--but not often, and rarely in any detail. Only a few projects spelled out the nature of the improvement they expected to achieve. Tucson sought to raise client literacy three grade levels. El Paso sought an increase in scores on the Ilyin placement test. Fort Worth targeted a 2,000-word vocabulary, ability to use job-related terminology, and ability to converse generally in English as performance objectives. These project objectives, although still rather general, were far more specific than those of most of the projects. None of the projects, however, detailed the tasks and milestones required to meet such objectives. The "bottom line"--enrollment in further training or placement and retention of a job--was what would count.

Overall project experience suggests that only a few projects entered into ESL training with any realistic idea of what could be accomplished. Only one project, San Francisco, felt that they would be able to meet ESL training objectives in less than the number of hours originally allotted. The vast majority felt that more time should be given than was originally planned. This was particularly true for projects whose clients were deficient in both English skills and native language education. Their students simply didn't learn enough English to function effectively in Title I training or on jobs.

Issues

What can be accomplished in a six-month to one-year program? It is extremely difficult to make hard and fast rules concerning the number of hours required to achieve a certain measure of competency. The variables--amount of English at entry, learning rate, degree of cultural interference, types of skills to be taught (oral and aural, reading and writing, or job-related, for example), and teacher ability, to name a few--are just too great. It is also difficult to estimate how much English is required for a given job. Obviously a bilingual secretary will need a great deal more English than a worker in a factory where a number of other employees speak his native language. But, a factory worker will need more than a minimum of English in order to advance beyond an entry-level position.

In general, the projects that were most successful in setting and meeting objectives were those with extensive prior experience in

How much instruction is enough?

In setting objectives, a project must be able to figure out what can be accomplished realistically within the time frame. Here is what some of the projects discovered:

For clients with some English, or some skills, and some education:

- Kansas City offered three months (540 hours) of intensive basic and intermediate English. They recommend a minimum of six months (1,000 hours) to meet the needs of this group.
- Tucson was able to raise clients' English by an average of three grade levels in their seven-month (1,000 hours), intensive English program. However, they recommend still more time for slower learners.
- San Francisco's project for Southeast Asian refugees felt that four months (640 hours) for intermediate students would be sufficient, provided they could score 200 on the Ilyin placement test before entering.
- Bergen County felt that beginners need at least a year of half-day, intensive English to achieve competence and that already skilled PLESAs should have six to nine months of English before being placed. Staff also recommend three to six months of ESL alone before students are placed into skills training.

For clients with low English, low skills, and low literacy:

- Tucson recommends an 18- to 30-month program, beginning with Spanish language ABE, followed by six months of intensive ESL, and finally skills training.
- Utah recommends "much more" than the 1000 hours of ESL they provided for non-literate, non-native speakers.
- Salem recommends a full year of English, three hours a day, before skills training for Southeast Asians with low-level English skills.
- Ventura tried to provide English and clerical skills training for low-level Mexican-born clients in one year and found the time to be insufficient. They recommend a much longer program.
- Cameron County sees ABE, ESL, and skills training for zero-English, low-literacy population as a three-year effort, and suggests having nothing but bilingual ABE and English education for the first one or two years.

teaching ESL. They know from experience that semi-literate and low-education level PLESAs could not learn sufficient English within the average six-month training period to function in positions requiring significant knowledge of English. Thus, they adjusted either their objectives or their prerequisite entry criteria.

Given that a project has a good general sense of how much can be accomplished with its clientele, what objectives are most appropriate for a course? The key factor in setting objectives should be client need. Generally speaking, people come to CETA programs because they need jobs. Projects offering general or survival ESL are not really focused on this need. Learning objectives should be based on the knowledge and skills needed to get and hold a job. In most cases the clients need as much oral training as possible, so they can speak and understand better on the job.

Finally, can specific performance objectives be spelled out? Detailed performance objectives and tasks have been set for vocational training and for certain areas of "general" ESL training, but to our knowledge, this has not been accomplished for manpower-focused ESL. Although the vocabulary and structures required would vary according to occupation, it does not appear that ESL is so different from other forms of adult education that performance objectives could not be set. Certainly a number of the projects suffered from the lack of such specific educational objectives. Both overall planning and determination of student achievement would benefit from their adoption.

Recommendations

1. ETA should fund research and development projects to define specific performance objectives and activities for manpower ESL.

2. Prime sponsors and projects should set objectives that can be met in the time available for ESL instruction and given the language and educational backgrounds of the students.

3. Prime sponsors should, wherever possible, set specific performance objectives for their MESL training.

5.2: What Was Taught

Approaches

The nature of courses varied greatly from project to project. The most common approaches included courses in general ESL, survival ESL, academic ESL, ESL plus work experience, English for a specific job, situational ESL, or manpower ESL.

General ESL for adults was offered by several projects. It emphasized both oral and written skills but little attempt was made to base training on specific job-related needs. By and large, projects offering such a course did not feel that their ESL experiment was particularly successful, and the projects were usually revised or discontinued after the grant period. McLennan County, for example, offered training in general grammatical structures, reading improvement, and conversation to both CETA and non-CETA participants. Atlanta offered a similar but more intensive program.

Survival ESL was offered by Cleveland, Rock Island, and Tucson, among others. The usual definition of survival English suggests the teaching of basic coping skills to low-level students. They would learn, for example, how to buy food, deal with landlords, or open a checking account. Most projects teaching survival English expanded the definition during the project to include the teaching of specific job-getting and holding techniques. Cleveland and Rock Island both included job finding, job interviewing, dressing for work, and job communication skills in their survival English course. A few projects planned to teach intermediate ESL, but wound up concentrating on survival skills due to the low level of students recruited.

Academic ESL, stressing written rather than oral skills, was probably the least successful approach for this clientele. The Cambridge project attempted to train bilingual service paraprofessionals through English and human services coursework at a local college. Project staff felt that the training was a failure because the approach was oriented too much toward reading and writing, and the students needed oral skills. Elizabeth's prime sponsor staff had great difficulty in getting their community college subcontractor to set course objectives that met the needs of their clients. Finally, they began offering an extra day of conversational and job-related English themselves.

ESL combined with work experience was offered by a number of projects, and most of these felt that the work experience was an extremely valuable language learning tool. A post-test conducted by the Springfield project 30 days after students were placed in work experience situations showed that significant English improvement occurred on the job site. Bergen County offered intensive English plus work experience subsequent to the Title III period, and they now recommend

that work experience be part of any project to train PLESAs.

Job-oriented ESL was most often integrated with on-the-job training or vocational skills training, and in such cases tended to provide very little ESL beyond job vocabulary. Bergen County's ESL/OJT project offered only three hours of English a week, focused on terminology to be used on the job. Bridgeport's skills instructor was also the ESL instructor, and in his second role he apparently did little more than provide translation of terminology.

Projects that offered both comprehensive and integrated job-related English appeared to be more successful. New York City's bilingual secretarial program run by the Puerto Rican Forum provided two hours daily of conversational and business English. English and clerical instructors got together to ensure that the programs were synchronized. The Oakland Chinese Community Council project attempted to integrate English with several areas of vocational training. In general, English was taught in the mornings and vocational training in the afternoons. Much of the vocational training, however, really became vocational English instruction. Students signed up either for clerical skills training or "production." Part of the clerical skills training was business English (vocabulary, letter writing, filling out forms, message taking). Most of the production training was instruction in terminology--students learned the names of tools, relevant vocabulary, job duties, job requirements, etc. Kansas City, too, offered ESL linked to its auto repair program.

Situational ESL describes both an approach and a delivery methodology. A number of projects attempted to simulate real-life situations for their students--interviews, phone answering situations, etc.--but only one adopted a total situational approach. Los Angeles' Chinese Restaurant Association taught both English and vocational skills in a simulated, but fully equipped, Chinese restaurant. English structures were outlined in class and then practiced as the students purchased food, cooked it, and managed their relations with both suppliers and diners.

Manpower ESL (MESL) was the kind of English that most projects, on balance, felt they should have been teaching. MESL can be defined as training which seeks to upgrade ability to function in English in a skills training or work situation. It might also be called prevocational, intermediate English. It assumes that the basics have been learned --that the student knows enough to communicate with a shopkeeper, find his or her way around town, and hold a halting but comprehensible conversation on a general topic--and that the student is ready to learn the English needed to improve employability.

Although approaches varied among the projects offering this training, common components appeared to be oral skills drill, office or skilled trades, English telephone technique, office terminology, understanding safety and task-related commands, skilled trades terminology, interviewing and job-seeking English, world of work orientation, and vocabulary related to specific jobs. The Utah

What is MESL?

Although no one has so far developed a definitive manpower ESL curriculum or text, PLESA project experience has pointed out some answers to the basic questions underlying such development.

What Level Student Should MESL Address? Most instructors agreed that job-related English can only be taught once basic language skills are in place. Thus MESL should most likely be targeted to the intermediate or advanced student of English.

What Language Skills Should be Stressed? Clients and instructors alike agreed on a need for oral rather than written skills. MESL should also stress the vocabulary and grammatical structures most often used on a job.

What Special Course Components Should be Included? Project instructors and staff stressed the importance of including interview techniques, relating to employers and fellow employees, and relevant cultural differences in the curriculum.

How Should MESL be Presented? In general, MESL have the same practical, hands-on focus as skills training, with as much simulated or actual real-life experience as possible, and with specific and defined performance objectives and tasks for each part of the course.

project staff among others, pointed out the need to address special social skills as well, such as relating to employers and other employees. Gary's MESL program included GED preparation for those who needed it. The Chinese Community Council in Oakland integrated MESL training with occupational skills training.

Issues

Should training focus on oral or written English? Almost universally, the projects felt that of the four basic skills--listening, speaking, reading, and writing--the most important are the oral skills. Even clients with a number of years of English training in their native country have trouble comprehending and speaking in a job situation. Projects whose concentration was on general or academic ESL stressed that were they to design another project, they would focus on oral skills. Participants interviewed also pointed out their desire for as much speaking and listening practice as possible. Their biggest complaint in work experience situations was an inability to understand what was being said.

Should ESL training be integrated with skills training and work experience? In general, the projects that provided ESL only as a minor component of a skills training effort were not satisfied with the results. Projects offering separate, but linked ESL programs generally felt that the job-related vocabulary and drills were an important part of the ESL curriculum. It would appear, on balance, that if concurrent skills training is offered, inclusion of job-related vocabulary and structures in the English training will be valuable. However, project staff also tended to feel that ESL should be offered separately from and before skills training, with a concentration on developing oral skills. The projects that offered ESL and concurrent work experience felt that the work component was quite valuable in improving English skills.

Should ESL or MESL be the training focus? And what, exactly, is MESL? In the United States, there is an obvious need for ESL training for adults whose English ability is very limited. However, the projects that attempted to train these people found that their clients' need for general and survival English was so great that the clients could not be adequately prepared to function in English-speaking job or training situations within the time period of the grant. CETA priorities and the needs of clients coming to CETA alike dictate a concentration on the kind of English that will improve employability. This requires that projects offer MESL training and select the kinds of clients that can best benefit from it.

Some components of MESL curriculum were mentioned above, but there is as yet no clear definition of the specific objectives and tasks that a MESL curriculum would encompass. It is possible that basic, intermediate and advanced MESL would be feasible, although project experience suggests that the most basic English skills should already be in place when clients enter a CETA program. Certainly these questions should be addressed, at both the national and project level. We cannot assume that the English required to get and hold a job will fall magically into place; it must be taught.

Recommendations

1. ETA should provide guidance and technical assistance to help projects develop specific manpower ESL performance objectives and implement performance-based curricula.

2. Prime sponsors and projects should design English training to improve oral skills and meet manpower ESL objectives.

3. Prime sponsors and projects should supplement ESL training with work experience as much as possible. Academic approaches should be avoided.

4. When skills training is offered with ESL, prime sponsors and projects should integrate them.

5.3: Delivery Methods

Approaches

There are a number of "buzz" words in education today that refer to approaches to education delivery that have achieved some currency: programmed learning; ability grouping; individualized instruction; open-entry, open-exit procedures; and the extended classroom, to name a few. Each of these was tried by one or more of the PLESA projects.

Programmed learning was the least commonly applied of the approaches mentioned. Kansas City tried it and found it useful in improving reading ability. However, staff found that beginners and people with low education levels had difficulty using the machines. The staff expressed some concern about trying this approach again with a population so unused to electronic equipment.

Ability grouping has been used for some time to ensure that learning proceeds for both fast and slow students at the most comfortable rate possible. Some projects used their initial assessment procedure as a basis for "leveling" students, that is, placing them into different levels of ESL based on previous experience. This approach is commonly used by ESL programs when students are not nomogeneous in background and when there are enough students in the program to warrant separate classes. Passaic divided participants into two groups and taught both basic ESL and intermediate ESL. Participants entering ongoing programs, such as in Elizabeth, were often able to be placed into one of several levels.

A few projects attempted "releveling", using a form of progress assessment. The San Francisco project, for example, measured improvement through retesting on the Ilyin test and was able to determine readiness for more advanced training.

For a number of the projects, leveling was not practical due to the limited number of students in the program at any given time. Some of them got around this problem by using small-group instruction methods. Interestingly, the projects found that homogeneous ability grouping was often not the best approach. Rather, they found it helpful to have more advanced students aid those with less proficiency. Los Angeles, however, found that for Vietnamese students, grouping by age was more effective than grouping by ability, since older students were uncomfortable about being "shown up" by younger students.

Individualized instruction is, almost by definition, a valuable approach dealing with students with varied backgrounds and experience, although large-group instruction is also available when teaching oral skills. The approach was attempted to some extent by several projects. Gary designed a semi-individualized course in which students could progress through a series of levels at their own rate. Passaic's instructor developed learning packets that the students could use individually or in pairs to practice vocabulary and structure. However, none of the projects used a totally individualized approach, which would require extensive use of learning packets and setting of individual performance objectives.

Open-entry, open-exit procedures allow students to enter a program at any time and leave when performance objectives are met. Since none of the projects developed specific performance objectives for ESL, or provided totally individualized programs, it is not surprising that the projects allowing open entry and exit were, in general, not pleased with the results. Teachers in the Atlanta project, for example, found that class unity and curriculum planning were adversely affected by the open-entry, open-exit approach. A new language is "built up" step by step. Totally open-entry and -exit can be a significant disruption.

Procedures to extend the classroom were used by several projects. Cleveland, for instance, periodically invited outside speakers who discussed such "real world" issues as police protection, legal aid, nutrition, credit, and finding employment. Several projects organized field trips. Projects reported that trips that helped students deal with the job market, such as Lansing's trip to the state employment services and Rock Island's individual sojourns to employers to pick up applications for work, were especially valuable. A number of projects used films, videotapes, and other audiovisual aids to extend the classroom. One project in Oakland had the students watch a soap opera each day; and reported that, not only did their listening skills improve, but their oral skills improved also in the animated discussions that followed.

Sonoma County combined a number of these procedures in their "world of work" orientation. Project staff held a three-day, job-seeking orientation after the clients had been in class for about three months. During the orientation, simulated telephone contacts were made with employers; role playing was used in which one client would take the role of an employer and another the role of the potential employee; employers were brought in to discuss their expectations; and films were shown on how to prepare for an interview.

Issues

What approaches to delivery work best? ESL educators have given up saying that any one method is the only way to deliver ESL effectively. An experienced instructor can surmount any number of obstacles--large classes, mixed ability levels, lack of materials or audiovisual aids--but his or

her methods will vary according to course objectives and the kinds of students in the class. Among the approaches discussed above, all but programmed learning and open-entry procedures were seen as important to the success of the projects involved. Given a different set of circumstances, programmed learning and open-entry and -exit could probably work, too.

Should instruction be individualized? Individualized instruction is probably the most potentially significant method discussed, given the varied backgrounds and training needs of PLESAs. The question, however, is how to implement it? Unless the training uses modules, with specific performance objectives spelled out, true individualization will be very difficult to achieve. A great deal of teacher planning is required and the planning must be based on a thorough understanding of the kind of training that will best serve the needs of PLESAs.

Teacher planning is also required to extend the classroom successfully. Too often, teachers rely on trips to the local supermarket or bank to enrich their students' experiences. Although such trips may be interesting exercises, they are not particularly focused to MESL objectives. When teachers are able to involve potential employers in classroom learning or incorporate world of work experience into field trips, a number of objectives can be served at once.

Should students be grouped by ability? The answer to this question will depend on the number and homogeneity of the students involved. In some cases, leveling by ability will not be feasible. In some cases, homogeneous, small groups will not be as productive as groups chosen on other criteria. In general, however, the projects found that grouping did facilitate learning. Utah, in fact, suggested that regrouping should be an ongoing procedure in order to level classes by learning rate as well as entry competence.

Recommendations

1. Projects should use initial and ongoing assessment measures to facilitate grouping of students by ability.

2. Projects should individualize instruction as much as possible.

3. Projects should extend the classroom by bringing in outside speakers, by sending the class out on work-related trips, and by using films, videotape, and other audiovisual media.

4. Projects should consider combining a number of approaches based on student needs and course objectives.

5.4: ESL Materials

Approaches

One of the common complaints voiced by project teaching staff was that good materials in the MESL field were hard to locate. Projects approached the problem of materials in a number of ways. Bergen County worked without a text, as did Bridgeport. These were projects designed to provide only job-related English, and the teachers developed exercises and drills to complement whatever was being taught that week in on-the-job training or vocational classes. Most of the projects, however, used published materials in the ESL for adults and vocational fields.

A few projects developed their own materials to supplement published texts. El Paso, for example, developed Essential English, an audiolingual approach to basic English for adults.

Oakland developed a series of "familiarization modules" to introduce job-related vocabulary. Thirty to forty-page workbooks were developed in Carpenter English, File Clerk English, Janitor English, and Manufacturing English. These workbooks include dialogues, vocabulary, readings on the duties of different types of jobs, reading comprehension tests, vocabulary exercises, and various illustrations, examples of applications, and so forth. The subcontractor in Oakland has also developed similar materials on American culture and to teach survival skills, including Transportation, Health and Nutrition, Housing, and United States History, Government, and Public Affairs.

Passaic developed a series of "learning packets" that combine previously published and original exercises in a format that allows self-correction. Teachers in a number of other projects developed exercises, drills, and innovative lesson plans for their students, but these were felt by the teachers to be "what any good teacher does all the time," and are thus not cited here.

Two projects, Cameron County and Honolulu, were set up primarily for the purpose of developing curricula and materials for ESL and vocational education. A third project in McLennan County proposed to translate into Spanish the Adult Performance Level (APL), competency-based, high school equivalency program of the University of Texas. But to date, only six of a total of 45 modules have been translated and published.

The Cameron County project proposed to develop a comprehensive curriculum to provide adult basic education, ESL, and vocational skills training to predominantly Spanish-speaking PLESAs of low literacy, and to develop bilingual texts for use in the classroom. To date the full curriculum has been outlined, and bilingual texts have been written for health education and auto mechanics.

THE BESL LIBRARY:
A VALUABLE RESOURCE

Pennsylvania's Intermediate Unit 13 BESL Center Library is a valuable PLESA program resource. The BESL Center brochure points out that more than 9,500 books and materials relevant to ESL and bilingual education are available on loan at the Center. The library also provides bibliographies on a number of topics of interest to PLESA program staff. These include:

- Career Vocational English (247 listings)
- Selected ESL for Adults (56 listings)
- Consumer Education (56 listings)
- GED Preparation (17 listings)
- Citizenship (19 listings)
- Driver Training (15 listings)
- Reading for Adults (91 listings)

Materials are also categorized for a number of language groups. Bibliographies are available for the following:

- Korean Language and Culture
- Vietnamese Language and Culture
- Thai Language and Culture
- Cambodian Language and Culture
- Hispanic Culture

In addition, the library provides professional consulting services and bilingual cultural materials upon request. For more information, write or visit:

BESL Center
Lancaster-Lebanon IE-13
100 Franklin Street
New Holland, PA 17557

Honolulu developed materials to teach both English and a skill (either autobody repair or nurses' aide skills) to Koreans, Vietnamese, and Filipinos. For each language group, reading, listening and speaking, and translation booklets are available in each of the skill areas. In addition, family health, shopping, and interview guides were developed. A total of 31 booklets have been printed, and two videotapes (one for autobody and one for nurses' aid training) are also available.

One project proposed to collect and codify already existing materials in ESL and adult education. Pennsylvania's Intermediate Unit 13 BESL Center Library (in New Holland) researched the literature, collected and evaluated books, and prepared an annotated bibliography that should be of use to any project attempting to select text or reference materials. This effort complemented an ongoing library collection. Because of the library's potential as a PLESA program resource, a summary of the collections and services of interest is included.

Issues

What can help projects in selecting materials? Choosing materials for MESL and related vocational education is not easy. There is not much available, and, in addition, it is often difficult for projects to discover what is available. To date, we have not seen a definitive MESL text, either printed by a commercial publisher or developed by this or similar programs. There are, however, a number of materials that can be used, alone or in combination. The bibliography accompanying this report lists many of them. Information and bibliographies are also available through the Indochinese Clearinghouse, Center for Applied Linguistics, in Arlington, Virginia, and through the Intermediate Unit 13 BESL Library in New Holland, Pennsylvania.

Experienced ESL teachers are usually able to evaluate texts based on course objectives and student needs. Projects whose teachers are not experienced in the field may need technical assistance in making this all-important purchase.

Recommendations

1. ETA should develop a comprehensive series of MESL texts to be used in intermediate and advanced classes for PLESAs.

2. Prime sponsors and projects should review materials currently available, with MESL objectives in mind, before selecting texts or supplementary materials.

3. Projects should seek professional, technical assistance in materials selection if thoroughly trained and experienced ESL staff are not available.

Chapter 6
Vocational Instruction

This chapter discusses the approaches to bilingual vocational skills training taken by the projects, focusing on objectives, the nature of bilingual instruction offered, delivery methods, and materials.

Nineteen (40 percent) of the projects provided skills training for PLESAs, most often in clerical and mechanical occupations. Approaches varied, but all projects involved wrestled with the problems of too little client English and not enough time. On balance, most projects--including many that did not offer skills training--felt that vocational training is a necessary component if clients are to be fully served. Still, for some clients it was not possible to offer the necessary English and skills training within the time period of a one-year grant.

The key issues surrounding vocational training for PLESAs appear to concern what jobs the PLESAs are to be trained for, and how best to approach bilingual instruction. Because PLESAs are learning both a new language and a new skill, they learn more slowly than native speakers, and probably will not achieve an advanced level of skill in a one-year period. In setting course objectives, therefore, projects must take into account not only job opportunities and client expectations, but learning rate as well.

Since clients learn concepts more quickly in their native language, bilingual instruction has been seen as a way to ensure that learning takes place in the most efficient way possible, but without sacrificing the knowledge of English required by most employers. However, there is a wide spectrum of opinion as to just how bilingual instruction should best be offered. Project experience indicates that offering all instruction twice--once in the native language and once in English--does not work. What does work, most often, is a flexible approach that uses the native language to explain difficult new concepts and terminology, but uses English as much as possible, in order to prepare students for the largely monolingual job market they will be entering.

The principal lessons that emerge from the PLESA experience are that more time must be allotted for PLESA vocational edu-

cation programs for PLESAs due to language barriers, and that a bilingual approach is indeed, not only desirable, but necessary.

6.1: Course Objectives

Approaches

The training objectives of the projects fell generally into three categories:

- Placement in office or clerical positions, such as bilingual secretary, bilingual import-export clerk, bilingual clerk typist, clerk typist, file clerk, and basic accountant
- Placement in skilled trade positions, such as auto mechanic, autobody worker, welder, electrician's assistant, building maintenance, meat cutter, machinist, and cook
- Placement in service provider positions, such as bilingual paralegal positions, bilingual health aide, food service worker, and social services outreach worker.

Most of the projects offered two or more training options, usually the first two categories above. Lansing, for example, offered a choice of clerk typist and auto mechanic training. Cleveland offered clerical and machine shop training. Laredo offered bilingual import-export clerk and electrician's helper training. Some projects offered training in all three categories. Ventura was one, offering a choice of auto mechanics, health aide, or multi-clerical training. Tucson offered office work, welding, electrician's helper, health aide, autobody, and meat cutting.

The option most often offered and selected was office and clerical training, for a number of reasons. First, labor market research indicated that the jobs were there. New York City and Elizabeth chose to concentrate solely in this area, because potential for placement appeared the highest. Second, clerical training is relatively inexpensive--typewriters cost a great deal less than metal lathes. Third, projects felt, not always correctly, that this training could be delivered within the relatively short time period of the grant, unlike machinist or electrician training which could take two or more years. Projects that selected clientele with relatively high levels of English and education such as the Puerto Rican Forum in New York, were able to meet their office training objective easily. Those that selected low-English, low-education clientele, such as Ventura, had more difficulty. Ventura participants did not develop enough English to learn many skills or apply them.

Several of the projects proposed to train bilingual personnel, again most often in office work. Laredo trained bilingual import-export clerks. The Puerto Rican Forum trained bilingual secretaries and clerk typists, as did Oakland's Educación Para Adelantar (EPA) project. Other cities, however, found little demand for bilingual personnel in the local job market. Cleveland and Tucson, therefore, concentrated on preparing office workers who could function in English.

The Cambridge project analyzed the local job market and community needs, and developed a set of objectives that was unique among the PLESA projects. They proposed to train bilingual service providers for health, paralegal, and social services positions. Once trained, the participants would be able to go back to their ethnic communities and work within them to assist their monolingual neighbors.

In addition to terminal objectives, some projects also set specific performance objectives. Oakland's Chinese Community Council project, for example, targeted a 65 wpm speed as a typing objective and tested weekly to measure progress. Lansing used objectives set by the Michigan State Department of Vocational Education Standards that detailed both tasks to be performed and criteria for determining proficiency.

Tucson set up a series of overall performance objectives in each subject area which were used as the basis of an individualized course of instruction. Each subject, such as business and office, was broken down into manageable components, such as typing, filing, mail procedures, and office machines. Each component, in turn, was broken down into learning objectives. For example, mail procedures were broken down into incoming mail and outgoing mail.

SOME OF THE LEARNING OBJECTIVES FOR FILING

FILING			POST TEST
_____	4.02.01	Organize and maintain a filing system	_____ (Date)
_____	4.02.02	File surnames	_____
_____	4.02.03	Index and alphabetize individual names	_____
_____	4.02.04	Alphabetize lone surnames with first name initials	_____
_____	4.02.05	Alphabetize surname prefixes	_____

Finally, each of those objectives was broken down into steps that had to be learned to achieve the objective. For example, there were five learning steps for the first phase of outgoing procedures: check outgoing mail; fold and insert mail into envelopes, seal envelopes, use zip code directory, and classify mail. Thus, the entire course was organized in easy steps that the trainee could learn at his or her own pace.

Some of the projects found that training objectives had to be revised downwards once the course was underway. New York City's Hunts Point project, for example, discovered that their high school dropout clientele simply could not become bilingual secretaries and junior bookkeepers within the time period of the grant. So Hunts Point trained clerk typists and basic accountants instead. Other projects discovered that the average of four to six months of training they had allotted was insufficient to bring a PLESA clientele to real proficiency. They therefore found themselves placing the students into different positions than they had been trained for.

Issues

Were the projects' training objectives appropriate in terms of the job market? Although some of the projects failed to meet placement objectives, none indicated that their problems were due to inappropriate course selection. The jobs, by and large, were there if the participants could be trained to execute them. However, in most cases these were not jobs that a PLESA would be uniquely qualified for. Only a few projects targeted training at jobs that would take advantage of previous language and culture as well as newly acquired skills.

The Cambridge project stands out in this regard. As bilingual service providers, the participants would be able to use their native language ability as well as their newly acquired English and vocational skills. New York City, Laredo, and Oakland EPA's bilingual training programs were also designed to take advantage of prior language and culture.

Only one project, Oakland, felt that it was unsuccessful in attempting to train participants for bilingual positions. They proposed to teach retirement-age Chinese women to become home health aides. The problems encountered were attributed more to the advanced age of the participants, who were often afraid to go into the dangerous neighborhoods where assistance was most needed, and to the minimum wage the jobs paid rather than to the training itself.

The job market and the nature of the client population will, of course, influence the appropriateness of bilingual objectives. However, employability can be enhanced in many instances if employees can function bilingually.

Finally, were the training objectives appropriate in terms of the time available to train the PLESAs? As noted in the previous chapter, a number of the projects felt that more time was needed for skills training; others indicated that the time allotted would prob-

ably have been sufficient if entry-level English had been higher. Limited English speakers learn more slowly than native speakers, because they must internalize both a language and a skill. Language-learning time, therefore, must be factored into any plan to offer skills training that requires a working knowledge of English.

What about specific performance objectives? Several states have developed elaborate minimum vocational performance objectives for vocational training programs, Connecticut and Michigan among them. Tucson found that they could develop their own. Project experience in applying objectives indicates that they can be extremely useful in determining exactly what should be expected as a result of training, and in structuring the lessons themselves.

Recommendations

1. Projects should take into account their clients' language problems as well as their vocational training needs if realistic objectives are to be set.

2. Projects should develop or adapt specific performance objectives for vocational education.

3. Projects should provide training for jobs that can use the clients' unique language and cultural backgrounds.

6.2: Approaches to Bilingual Instruction

Approaches

In all three major areas of vocational training offered--clerical, skilled trades, and human services provision--most of the projects offered practical, hands-on experience rather than a descriptive theoretical approach. Only two projects, Cambridge and Tacoma, provided academically focused training, and their experience led them to support the majority opinion that training should be practical and job-focused.

The major differences in approach centered around the language or languages in which training was offered. Several projects offered instruction in English; Cameron County offered instruction in Spanish; but the majority attempted some form of bilingual instruction.

English language instruction was provided for both philosophical and practical reasons. Several projects voiced the sentiment that if people are going to work in English-speaking occupations, they should learn the job in English, if possible. For some types of training, only monolingual in-

SHOULD VOCATIONAL TRAINING FOR PLESA BE BILINGUAL?

Even within projects, opinions vary as to the nature and degree of bilingual skills training that should be offered. Below is a sample of instructional staff comments:

"If new ideas can be presented first in the language they understand, it is very helpful."

Electrician Instructor, Laredo

"There's no demand for a Spanish-speaking meat cutter. They have to communicate in English."

Meat Cutting Instructor, Tucson

"They can learn the business and office skills faster in Spanish...at least at first."

Business Office Instructor, Tucson

"They become dependent on the Spanish materials--so I replace them with a glossary of terms and force them to use English in class."

Electrical Helper Instructor, Tucson

"You shouldn't have to learn new concepts and a new language simultaneously. We teach them concepts in Spanish, and then give 'transitional ESL' to teach the English vocabulary."

Project Director, Brownsville

"I taught everything twice--once in Spanish and once in English. It would be better to give them ESL first and teach in English."

Multi-clerical Instructor, Ventura

"If they are going to be good bilingual secretaries they need good skills in English and Spanish."

Office Practice Instructor,
New York City-Puerto Rican Forum

structors were available. Other projects had several language and cultural groups in one class and finding an experienced instructor, fluent in all the languages and dialects represented, was just not possible.

A case in point is the cook-restaurateur training provided by Los Angeles' United Chinese Restaurant Association. The Association instructors felt that it was important to give training in the language the students should ultimately use, and the simulated restaurant that was set up functioned to provide practice in English as well as vocational skills. Furthermore, even had the instructors wished to provide bilingual training, it would have been difficult due to the range of Chinese dialects and other Asian languages spoken by the students.

New York's Hunts Point program also taught in English. Since the students had relatively good English skills upon entry, and since they were being trained for positions requiring English, this was felt to be a particularly appropriate mode of instruction. Prime sponsor staff in Cambridge, on the other hand, felt that students suffered in the all-English classes at a local community college, at least partly because their English was not yet good enough to understand the instructor. The project could not provide bilingual instruction due to the large number of ethnic groups represented, so bilingual tutors were employed to try to alleviate the problem. Other projects offered some courses in English (due usually to the unavailability of bilingual instructors), while other courses were bilingual. They found that learning was slower in the all-English classes and recommended orally focused ESL prior to entry into such training.

Spanish language instruction was proposed by only one project, Cameron County, which developed a Spanish-language curriculum and simplified materials to teach auto mechanics. Their language choice was based on two factors: the possiblity of successful employment of persons of extremely limited English ability in the border community of Brownsville, and the project's commitment to sequential bilingual training. The curriculum plan stressed learning of concepts in the native language, because concepts would be learned more easily that way, followed by "transitional" ESL that would provide the vocabulary and structures required to function on the job in English.

Border communities generally found the use of Spanish to be a practical approach to skills training. Laredo offered training in both English and Spanish, but concentrated on Spanish when client English level was low.

Bilingual instruction was favored by most of the projects. Delivery approaches, however, varied considerably. For example:

- Ventura gave all lectures and demonstrations twice--once in English and once in Spanish.
- New York's Puerto Rican Forum taught Spanish and English typing and stenography--the Spanish

skills in Spanish, and the English skills in English.

- Tucson and Bridgeport taught primarily in English, but instructors translated terms and concepts into Spanish as required.

- Elizabeth and Laredo taught in both English and Spanish, concentrating on Spanish for concepts and English for new vocabulary. This was also the approach used by the worker-teachers in Bergen County.

- Lansing had a monolingual skills instructor, but he was assisted in class by an ESL instructor.

Interestingly, all-English or bilingual approaches to instruction did not always correlate with English or bilingual placement objectives. Cambridge, for example, planned to train bilingual service providers, but taught in English. Ventura trained mechanics and office personnel for English-language positions using both Spanish and English throughout the course.

Bilingual materials, native-language materials, or instructor translations of existing English language materials were used by a number of projects. Tucson staff, although they provided Spanish translations of texts and handouts, indicated that they would prefer to "force" their students to use more English and not rely so much on the Spanish materials. Cameron County, on the other hand, suggested strongly that new concepts should be read, as well as taught, in the native language.

This controversy over materials is indicative of a larger controversy concerning what bilingual education is and should be. The variety of comments collected illustrates how greatly opinions can differ, even within projects, as to whether bilingual education should be tried at all, and if so, how.

Issues

Should vocational education be practical or academic in focus? Project experience indicates strongly that it should be the former, at least for the great majority of clients. Participants in the Cambridge project indicated to counselors that they had trouble understanding what was said in class. They also had trouble keeping up with reading assignments. Moreover, these were people who wanted to be trained for jobs. They had families to support, rents to meet; they wanted employment quickly, in positions they were comfortable in filling. An academic program simply didn't meet their needs.

Should training be offered bilingually? The answer, though not as clear, would appear to be "yes, if possible," although monolingual training can also work. Learning new concepts is made doubly hard if the language in which they are presented at first is incomprehensible. However, most projects felt that English should be used as much as possible in order to ensure that the native

language does not become a security blanket standing in the way of necessary mastery of English. As a Tucson instructor explained, "there's no demand for a Spanish-speaking meat cutter here." Or in most other places, either.

How should bilingual training be presented? In examining the variety of approaches the projects took, it appears that a number of presentation styles can work. The key to success would appear to be a flexible approach, based on placement objectives and client needs. Obviously, as English proficiency increases, instructors will be able to rely less on native-language instruction. Tucson instructors, however, point out that clients may tend to stay with their native language longer than they should. It is up to the instructors to push them toward greater use of English.

Recommendations

1. ETA should develop guidelines for the appropriate use of English, native language, or bilingual instruction in vocational courses. In most cases, native language instruction will be inappropriate.

2. Prime sponsors should recognize the importance of a flexible approach to bilingual vocational programs, moving toward a greater use of English as the course progesses.

6.3: Delivery Methods

Approaches

For a number of years, the favored methodology in adult vocational education has been to provide practical, hands-on training, using equipment as similar as possible to that used in typical jobs in the field. Traditionally, instructors have been experienced practitioners themselves rather than "ivory tower" theoreticians. They have been the "masters"; the students, the "apprentices."

Almost all the projects adopted this approach. However, some projects, working within this overall methodological framework, attempted to implement delivery methods that would go beyond the master-apprentice approach. These innovations included individualized instruction; open-entry, open-exit procedures; and situational learning.

Individualized instruction, in which students could meet performance objectives at their own pace, was attempted by several projects, including Lansing, Oakland, and Tucson. All three of these projects used performance milestones as a measure of student

progress and allowed students to progress at their own pace.

Tucson went even further, outlining specific tasks and developing individual contracts for task performance. Based on a list of tasks to be mastered, students met with their teachers each week to draw up a contract that included meeting at least one objective in each subject area. A test, at the completion of each set of tasks, gave an objective indication of the competence achieved, and ongoing records were kept of objectives met. Once all the objectives for each subject were mastered, the students were free to leave for jobs. Because most of the subjects being taught could be broken down into discrete tasks that could be mastered individually, it was relatively easy for students to set a pace at which they could learn comfortably. Because teachers were not bound by a traditional lecture/demonstration format, they could provide assistance on an individual basis as needed.

Open-entry, open-exit procedures allow students to begin training at any time and leave the program as soon as competence has been achieved. Projects using these procedures could replace unsuccessful terminations immediately and train more students for the same money. Students could leave for salaried positions as soon as they were ready, rather than after a fixed period. The procedures are thus a useful corollary to the type of modular, individualized instruction developed by Tucson. Oakland, too, found them effective. Laredo, on the other hand, discovered that their import-export training required a "building block" approach, with each lesson drawing on what was learned before and a great deal of teacher demonstration; it was incompatible with open-entry, open-exit.

Situational learning theory suggests that learning is reinforced when provided in context. For example, office skills training would take place in a simulated or actual office. Only one project, the one run by the Chinese Restaurant Association in Los Angeles, used situational learning in a comprehensive fashion. Students learned cooking and restaurant management by actually setting up and running their own restaurant. A bonus was that they got to eat the lunch they cooked each day.

Issues

How can training be delivered most efficiently? In designing a vocational education course, any project wants to maximize the degree of student learning for a given amount of instructor and classroom time. Individualization, open-entry/open-exit, and situational learning appear to be three methods that can be used successfully in achieving this goal. They will not be effective, however, in every context, nor can they be implemented successfully without a great deal of planning in the design stage. Individualization requires setting of objectives that can be individually met. Open-entry requires modular lessons that new students can enter and join up with the class in a short time. Situational learning requires careful design to ensure that students learn while they do. Project experi-

ences in Tucson, Oakland, Laredo, and Los Angeles suggest that when these criteria are met, learning can indeed be enhanced.

Recommendations

1. Projects should try as much as possible to individualize instruction so that students can learn at their own pace.
2. For vocational education courses that can be presented in modular fashion, open-entry, open-exit procedures should be used.
3. A situational approach to learning should be used, as feasible.

6.4: Vocational Educational Materials

Approaches

The materials used varied considerably in nature. Some projects used existing texts; others developed or adapted their own. Some used materials in English; some in Spanish. Some used bilingual materials or provided native-language translations of English materials. In short, the approaches were as varied as the approaches to instruction. There was one important difference, however. While bilingual skills instructors may not be easy to find, they can usually be found; bilingual materials, in some cases, however, were just not available.

Two projects were designed to develop vocational training materials. Honolulu produced a series of books and videotapes to provide English and skills training to nurses' aides and auto mechanics. The books are available in English-Vietnamese, English-Korean, and English-Ilocano versions. Accompanying videotapes (15 for each subject) are in English. Cameron County developed a simplified, Spanish language auto repair text and a curriculum that outlines the subsequent "transitional ESL" needed to transfer the knowledge into English.

The Intermediate Unit 13 BESL Library developed a bibliography of English and native language materials for vocational education. More information on the library was contained in the preceding chapter.

Issues

What are the best materials to use in bilingual vocational training of PLESAs? A number of projects voiced the concern that "nothing is available" in the way of native-language, bilingual, or simplified English vocational texts. While this not exactly true, as the BESL bibliography and the bibliography accompanying this report attest, there is still a distinct shortage of materials. Because many of the texts and supplementary materials available for native speakers are extremely difficult for PLESAs to comprehend, projects will have to search carefully to find texts compatible with client English ability.

Recommendations

1. Technical assistance in selecting materials should be provided to projects inexperienced in bilingual training, perhaps through manpower institute grants.

2. Projects should review materials available in English and in clients' native languages before making materials selection.

6.5: Linkages with English Language Training

Approaches

Teaching PLESAs differs from other vocational education because for most jobs PLESAs need to learn English as well as a skill. The type and degree of linkage between ESL and vocational education was often a significant factor in project success.

The ways of combining English and skills training ranged across a wide spectrum. At one end were the projects geared to providing vocational training with only a minimum of ESL. Next were projects that provided concurrent ESL and vocational training. Other projects provided ESL first, followed by concurrent ESL and skills training. Finally, there were projects that provided only ESL, with the understanding that clients would go on to other training funded by Title I.

Vocational training was the primary focus for only a few projects. Bridgeport was one; Lansing was another. Bridgeport proposed to offer a daily English class taught by the skills instructor. In fact, the English was often subsumed into skills training. Lansing failed to offer any separate ESL program, but did provide a bilingual ESL instructor to translate terms for a monolingual skills instructor.

Concurrent ESL and vocational training was offered by several projects, including New York City and Corpus Christi. New York's Puerto Rican Forum felt that the two hours a day of conversational and business English they provided was essential to the success of the bilingual secretarial program. But, were they to do it again, the staff said they would try to offer even more English--preferably two to three months before skills training. Corpus Christi felt that English should also have been offered prior to its autobody repair program.

Sequential ESL and vocational training were offered by several of the projects. Cleveland offered a number of options, for example, including ESL alone, ESL followed by skills training, and concurrent ESL and skills training. Ventura, training low-English, low-education level students, offered only a few weeks of ESL prior to their clerical program. The staff felt that skills training should not have been begun until the students had about nine months of ESL, for they found that the students were unable to learn clerical skills effectively due to their low English level. Oregon attempted a sequential program for another low-English, low-education group, but dropped the skills training component completely when they found how much English the students needed.

Among the projects that offered concurrent and sequential instruction, there were a number of attempts to provide strong links between the ESL and vocational classes. Oakland, for example, developed "familiarization modules" to teach the ESL students vocational terminology. And, many of the ESL teachers worked informally with the skills instructors to match vocabulary.

ESL without skills training was the approach adopted by the majority of the projects. They sought to prepare students to find jobs on their own or enter into Title I programs later. Some of the projects felt that this approach was particularly appropriate in training PLESAs. Others suggested that vocational education targeted to this population was needed as well, since even after completing the course, students were not always able to function effectively in Title I programs.

Issues

Should ESL and vocational training be linked--and if so, how? The issues surrounding linkages are complex. ESL training is obviously required if a PLESA is to move beyond entry-level employment. But without skills training he or she will be equally trapped. Concurrent training in ESL and vocational education is tempting because it allows the ESL course to be tailored to vocational needs. Yet, more projects recommend using a sequential approach, with ESL first, followed by more ESL and concurrent vocational training. This allows the student to build up oral skills before entering vocational training.

Decision will have to be based on careful analysis of student abilities and needs matched to an assessment of what can realistically be accomplished within the time frame. Project experience suggests that in most cases sequential linkages will be

more effective than starting vocational training right away. However, it is clear that vocational training will suffer if given short shrift. For low English, low skilled PLESAs, the only solution may be a longer training period.

Recommendations

1. Prime sponsors inexperienced in training PLESA's should request technical assistance in determining the best approaches to linking ESL and vocational education.

2. Projects should use a sequential approach, offering English prior to skills training.

Chapter 7
Job Development and Placement

This chapter describes how the PLESA projects identified jobs, prepared clients and placed them in jobs, and what follow-up they conducted.

As with the other services, projects varied in the approaches they used to develop jobs. A few projects didn't develop jobs for their clients because placement was not an objective--preparation for entry into Title I training was. Those projects that did job development followed the traditional CETA approach. They found that it was very important to match the client to the job. Teamwork among the counselors, instructors, and job developers was also important. Preparing the clients both for getting and holding a job was very important. Finally, not only did clients need information on filling out applications and interviewing, but they also needed cultural awareness sessions to help them understand the customs and traditions surrounding work in this country, including employer expectations, the role of unions, and so forth.

Placement rates varied tremendously, from a low of zero placements to a high of 78 percent of the clients placed in jobs. Unfortunately little follow-up information was collected so there is no accurate information on job retention, but informal feedback from employers indicates that it was often low. Lack of adequate English, skills, experience, inappropriate placement and poor selection of clients were some of the reasons for difficulties in both placement and retention.

Probably the key lesson learned from the PLESA experience is that it is very important to match people to jobs. Projects that found or created jobs that fit their clients' needs and capabilities seemed to be more effective than those that did not.

7.1: Identifying Jobs

Approaches

The projects took different approaches to job development and placement. A few projects did not have any job development at all. These were projects which intended to prepare clients for entry into Title I training. About half of the remaining projects provided job development through Title I and about half provided it through their PLESA grant.

A few projects, such as Tacoma, Cleveland, New Holland, and Tucson, provided an employment service that did not involve much, if any training, counseling, or support services. For example, in Cleveland most PLESA clients just went through Job Search, the project's employment service. The process involved is fairly standard. The job developer contacted employers looking for job openings. When he found an opening he wrote up a job order and sent it to the employment counselor who interviewed clients and tried to select an appropriate job order for the client. Once a suitable job order was selected, the employment counselor called the employer to verify that the job was still open, made an appointment for the client to be interviewed, and then referred the client to the employer. If the client got the job, he or she was supposed to notify the project's intake worker, who kept a tally sheet. If the client didn't get the job, he or she might return for another job order and interview.

Most projects did much more than this for clients they trained. In general, they would identify certain types of jobs that would fit their clients' needs and skills. They would hold special classes or counseling sessions on getting and holding a job. They would provide extra help to the client in identifying and applying for jobs. And they would contact the client, the employer, or both, at periodic intervals after placement to see what happened. Very few projects got jobs first and then selected clients to train for them. The Elizabeth and Bergen County projects did try this route, but quite unsuccessfully. Elizabeth did an analysis of the job market and found that bilingual office and bank personnel were in demand. They formed a banking advisory committee made up of prominent bankers and got them to hold jobs for the project graduates. Then they contracted with Union College to train 52 clients. Unfortunately, coordination and communication between the key agencies became a problem, the bankers failed to attend committee meetings, and the promised jobs failed to materialize.

Bergen County examined employment service data and decided that there were a number of operator-level factory jobs that PLESAs could fill. If bilingual/ bicultural supervisors could be found at the job site, and if the companies could be reimbursed for on-the-job training, they felt they could have a successful project. They found the companies and got commitments for jobs. Then they began recruiting clients. This approach didn't work well either. The project

recruited people who were not suited to the available jobs; the factories couldn't provide much training; and the ESL training was minimal.

Most projects identified jobs after the clients were recruited, and in some cases, only as they were completing training. Some took the approach that Cleveland used. They identified as many jobs as they could find. They watched the want ads, posted job openings listed by the employemnt service, called employers to see what was open, and so forth. This might be called a "passive" approach to job development. The projects didn't develop jobs as much as identify openings that existed.

There were many projects that took a more active, aggressive approach which seemed to be more effective. Job developers and other staff would call employers they knew and try to sell the project, the client group, and a particular client. Vocational instructors were particularly effective in doing this since they often knew both small and large employers in the fields for which they had been training PLESAs. They would contact them and line up jobs for their students. Laredo sent a form letter to all contractors in the area informing them that a training program was underway for electrician's helpers. The letter was followed up with telephone calls and personal contacts with those contractors who were interested.

Many job developers learned that employers saw them as providing a service to employers. Besides finding and recommending good employees, employers also saw these projects as helping them meet Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Opportunity requirements. So, if the job developer could produce a good worker, the employer would come back for more.

A few projects used an innovative approach to get the client's foot in the door. They called it "job exposure." One of the San Francisco subcontractors placed 85 percent of its clients, in part, they feel, because of "job exposure." After about four weeks of intensive ESL, the students spent up to 16 hours a week at a work site observing the job they were going to apply for. The exact schedule was determined by the individual companies. In most cases the student was employed by the company that offered the job exposure.

The project in Passaic set up "vocational experience," where students spent five half days in a public service job. This differed from the San Francisco approach in that the students did not always get assigned to the types of jobs they were interested in, and they did not have much counseling to prepare them for the experience.

Several projects, San Francisco, Gary, and Cambridge, among them, took pains to match clients to the jobs. In San Francisco the job developer spent a lot of time contacting employers in banks and insurance companies. These were the jobs that their Southeast Asian clients wanted, and fortunately, San Francisco has a lot of banks and insurance companies. Some other projects that tried to force similar clients to take blue collar jobs found that many

clients either wouldn't take the jobs or quit shortly after they were hired.

The projects differed widely in how far they would go in getting the job for the client. Most felt that the client had to learn to get the job on his own. Thus, the job developers would usually set everything up, even make the appointment, but they would not go with the client to the interview. In a few projects, however, like Fort Worth, Atlanta, Salem, and Kansas City (Kan.), the job developer accompanied the client to the interview, and acted as an intermediary between the employer and the client, actually participating in the interview.

Based on their experience with PLESAs, the projects have identified several features as particularly important for successful job development:

- Teamwork among the key staff is crucial. The counselor, instructors, and job developer have to work together and provide each other with feedback about the client. This helps them both identify jobs that the client can do well and also prepare clients better for the jobs.
- Matching of clients and jobs is very important. Some projects were successful because they found jobs that fit their clients needs and skills. Others were less successful because the clients were placed in jobs that they couldn't handle or didn't like.
- Satisfied employers are very important to the project. If they are happy, they recommend the project to others.
- Contacts with employers are also important. Successful projects didn't rely on want ads, they relied on their personal contacts with employers in their area.
- An agressive job developer is also important. It takes a certain type of person to be a successful job developer. He or she must be personable, assertive, an advocate for the client, knowledgeable about the strengths and weaknesses of the clients, honest, objective and willing to spend a lot of time out in the field contacting employers.

Recommendations

1. Projects should be particularly careful to match the client to the jobs.
2. Projects should also be careful in selecting job developers who should be personable, aggressive, and knowledgeable about the clients.

7.2: Preparing Clients for Getting and Holding a Job

Approaches

Besides finding jobs for the clients, most projects found out that it was very important to prepare the clients first for getting a job and then for holding it. Project staffs typically provided information on the job market to clients; taught them how to fill out an application and interview for a job; and tried to deal with cultural differences that might affect the client's chances of getting and retaining a job, such as grooming habits and attitudes toward tardiness and absenteeism.

Job preparation often began with an intake interview or a counseling session during which the client identified job interests and the staff described the types of jobs available. A typical product of such a session was an employment development plan, which described the client's employment goals and the steps that were to be taken to reach those goals.

In Tucson, the clients were asked to choose three preferred jobs, such as draftsman, welder, and miner. The client then met with the job developer to discuss the choices. Because the job developer knew the labor market and what employers were looking for, he might talk the client out of one or more of the choices. For example, the demand for welders had declined in Tucson, but the demand for miners had increased. After selecting a job preference area, the client and the staff worked out an employment development plan. Then, depending on the client's needs, he or she would be scheduled to get ESL, skills training or both.

During the time the clients were in training, most projects provided special classes or counseling sessions to help prepare them for work. Sometimes the classes were integrated into ESL, but usually they were separate. The Ventura project used a typical approach. The job developer conducted a course in job search techniques. It was held two hours a week for 18 weeks and consisted of an introduction to the world of work, how and where to look for a job, how to place an application, how to prepare for an interview, how to behave at the interview, and what to do after the interview. In addition, films on interviewing and work situations were shown; mock interviews were held; employers were invited to speak to the class; and the classes visited prospective work sites.

Several projects also found videotapes very useful. Students went through a practice interview which was taped and then played back. This helped the students identify inappropriate mannerisms and mistakes, and motivated them to correct them.

Field trips were also effective. One of the field trips in Orange County was to the Employment Development Department. Five

How To Prepare Clients For Getting And Holding A Job

Instructors, counselors and job developers at different PLESA projects tried various approaches to help their clients become prepared for getting and keeping a job. Below is a sample of subjects and various techniques that were tried.

- Employment Development Plan. This could be drawn up individually or in a workshop, such as a "career decisions workshop" sometimes offered in youth programs. Follow-up sessions and updating of the plans were sometimes added to make the plan a "living" document.

- Identifying Jobs. The subject here was how to look for a job when you are on your own, using newspaper ads, employment service listings, the telephone book, and contacting employers.

- Getting a Job. Films on interviewing dos and don'ts were shown. Some job developers obtained actual employment applications for practice. Videotaping of practice interviews was effective. Resume writing and obtaining an appointment for a job interview were practiced.

- Overcoming Cultural Interference. Games, awareness sessions, and discussions of work habits, attitudes toward supervisors, assertiveness, and time sense were used to teach clients how to retain jobs once they got them.

- Salary, Taxes, and Fringes. Understanding a paycheck isn't always easy. Clients needed to know about deductions, contributions, and the benefits to which they are entitled. Union rules, sick leave, vacations, lay-offs and many other world of work items also needed to be understood.

students got jobs on the spot.

One of the most important items that projects learned they had to deal with involved culturally-derived attitudes. This seemed to be a particularly significant problem with recent immigrants and refugees. For instance, some would not consider taking jobs that were considered "low status" jobs in their native culture. Some would not move or travel to jobs outside of their community. In Cleveland the staff found that their biggest problem was getting their clients to understand that it was important to be reliable, dependable, and to show up at work on time. Laredo found it couldn't recruit men for clerk training or women for electrician training, because it wasn't culturally acceptable. Kansas City (Mo.) had trouble getting some Vietnamese clients to leave the PLESA program, even after they were qualified to work.

As a result, most projects, whether they had planned for it or not, began counseling students in work values that would prepare them for getting and holding a job in this culture. The effort was apparently important, and helpful wherever it was done.

Issues

Is preparation of clients for getting and holding jobs important to include in a PLESA project, and if so, what should it consist of? The PLESA experience indicates that it is probably more important for this type of clientele than for other CETA clients. Many PLESA clients are recent immigrants who do not understand how to apply for a job, what work customs are here, what a union is, and so forth. They need specific instruction in the techniques of getting a job, and they also need to understand the cultural differences between work behavior in their native country and the United States. Even native-born PLESAs often need help in understanding and overcoming, what one couselor called, "the pressures of the cultural clash."

In general, prime sponsors can expect that PLESA clients will need preparation in both the techniques of applying for a job, and the cultural values that are inherent in the work world.

Recommendation

Projects should include specific sessions in the curriculum they use for preparing clients for the world of work. These sessions should include orientation in American work values as well as in techniques for getting and holding a job.

7.3: Placement and Follow-up

Approaches

As was mentioned previously, the data on job placement and retention are incomplete and, in some cases, inaccurate. This is because followup practices varied widely among PLESA projects. For example, Bridgeport did no follow-up. Atlanta checked on clients one, two, and four weeks after placement. Oklahoma did it "periodically," South Carolina did it "informally." Many projects, such as Utah, did it at 30, 60 and 90 days after placement. Some, like Tucson, also did it 180 days later. A few, like San Francisco, also did follow-up one year after placement.

Follow-up was sometimes done by project staff, as in Chicago; by Title I staff, as in Cambridge; or by the prime sponsor, as in New Haven. Some projects, like Rock Island, contacted participants. Others, like Passaic, contacted employers. And a few, like Elizabeth, contacted both.

There were other variations, too. Some projects just called to verify employment, others got a more detailed description of job history since leaving the project. Some asked for feedback on the PLESA project. Some collected the data by telephone, some by letter, some by personal contact.

The result is that there is very little hard data that is comparable among projects. The estimates of placement and retention can only be rough approximations. The official placement figures, which come from the subcontractors' close-out reports, show placement rates ranging from zero to 78 percent. We know that some subcontractors in multi-agency projects had even higher rates. The Puerto Rican Forum in New York placed 79 percent of its PLESA clients. The Southeast Asian Refugee Program in San Francisco placed 85 percent.

Low placement rates do not necessarily indicate failure, for some PLESA projects did not have placement as a goal. They attempted to give their clients enough English language ability to qualify for Title I training. And some projects, such as Cleveland, worked with hard-core, unemployed PLESAs, making placement more difficult than for projects that selected clients more likely to succeed.

Still, according to the official figures, only about one-quarter of the PLESA projects were able to place half or more of their clients. Out of 6547 clients enrolled in PLESA, only 2560 were placed in jobs for an average placement rate of .391. (See Table 2.)

Retention rates are unknown, but informal feedback from some staff, clients, and employers indicates that it is low. For example, Laredo had a relatively high placement rate, 61 percent. Sixty days later a verification of employment showed that 20 of the 36 clients were still employed (56 percent), 10 were unemployed (28 percent), and six (17 percent) had

moved or could not be found. One year later we learned from interviews with a few of the clients that some clients did not do as well as the figures indicated. Two of the graduates of the electrician's course, who were thought to be prize students because they had started their own business, actually had difficulty finding work. That's why they said they were "self-employed." Another client got a job installing telephones in cars, but he didn't know how to do the wiring, so he quit. Now he's employed, but he's driving a bus. Only three or four of the nine women who found jobs got them in the field they were trained in, import-export clerk. Another woman has been looking for work for over a year. At least one other went back to work as a migrant farmer.

In Cleveland, which had a placement rate closer to the average for PLESA (.336), informal feedback from clients and employers indicates that many PLESA participants did not stay with their jobs. One letter from an employer who had hired a large number of machine shop graduates listed the experiences he had with each student. Most had stayed for awhile and then left, often without notice, he said.

Issues

What are the reasons for these apparent problems with placement and retention? The staff and clients that we interviewed identified quite a few:

- Lack of English. Despite the special training in ESL, this remained one of the key problems. Once on the job, many clients still had trouble speaking and comprehending English. Eventually they or their supervisors became frustrated and the client often left the job.

- Not Enough Skills. Training was so short that most clients did not acquire many new skills. In fact, most PLESA projects did not get into skill training at all.

- Lack of Experience. Those who came into the program without experience still had this deficiency. As far as some employers were concerned, they had no work record.

- Inappropriate Placement. Some clients were eager to take any job because they needed money. Some projects rushed clients through the program and sent them out before they were ready. Many projects did not match the client and the job.

- Poor Selection. Some clients could not be helped in the time available. Some were overqualified. Some had no intention of working. Others had no confidence, no motivation, or lacked the prerequisites for training.

- Unrealistic Expectations. Some clients expected high level, well-paying jobs and were disappointed when they found out what they were likely to get. Some employers expected fluent, skilled, self-motivated workers and were disappointed with what they got.

TABLE 2: Job Placements and Placement Rates for PLESA Projects

RANK	PROJECT	PLACEMENT RATE *	NUMBER PLACED
1	Atlanta	.780	334
2	Tucson	.773	150
3	Oakland	.665	169
4	Bridgeport	.636	7
5	San Francisco	.621	77
6	Laredo/Webb	.611	22
7	Corpus Christi	.610	36
8	Rock Island	.575	23
9	Los Angeles County	.560	65
10	Gary	.556	25
11	East Middlesex	.500	7
12	State of Wyoming	.444	28
13	State of South Carolina	.438	21
14	Dallas	.436	24
15	Cameron County	.420	165
16	Philadelphia	.419	57
17	Orange County	.415	54
18	Passaic County	.415	27
19	Kansas City, Kan.	.375	24
20	Oklahoma City	.372	58
21	Bergen County	.364	40
22	New Haven	.348	8
23	State of Pennsylvania	.342	139
24	Cleveland	.336	142
25	El Paso	.328	21
26	New York City	.327	74
27	Jersey City	.326	44
28	Chicago	.317	138
29	Ft. Worth	.290	60
30	Tacoma	.276	47
31	Honolulu	.271	23
32	Las Vegas	.267	23
33	State of New Mexico	.250	18
34	Lansing	.231	12
35	Salem	.221	271
36	Elizabeth	.208	11
37	Ventura	.206	14
38	Austin	.186	8
39	State of Texas	.173	13
40	Sonoma	.147	5
41	State of Hawaii	.143	7
42	Kansas City, Mo.	.128	10
43	State of Utah	.102	6
44	State of New York	.081	3
45	Hidalgo	.076	49
46	Springfield	.022	1
47	McLennan	.000	0
	Average	.391	2,560

* Number of clients/Numbers of placements

This does not mean that PLESA had no successes. Within each project there were numerous success stories. For example, one Cleveland participant was totally monolingual and illiterate in his own language when he entered the project. He took almost everything the project had to offer: ESL, ABE, and the machine shop course. Now he has a job and he speaks English well. "I'm happy," he said. "I found a good job." Although he thought the training was too short, he liked what he got. "The program was excellent," he said. "I recommend it for everyone who doesn't know English."

But, in general, too little information was gathered on placement and retention to know what happened to the PLESA clients. Without follow-up information, prime sponsors will have difficulty determining whether the projects have been effective, and if so, what they did that worked.

Recommendations

1. ETA should require a standardized follow-up of PLESA participants. Guidelines should be provided to help the projects collect the same type of data in the same manner and at the same time.

2. Prime sponsors should make sure that follow-up information is collected, evaluated, and fed back to projects.

Part III: PLESA Overall

Chapter 8
Program and Policy Implications

This final chapter presents an assessment of the overall PLESA experience, and a discussion of the implications for future programs and policies.

8.1: An Assessment of the PLESA Program

- What did the PLESA program do?

Although PLESAs constitute a significant and growing segment of the economically and educationally disadvantaged but potentially employable adults of this country, they have been traditionally underrepresented in CETA training programs. Over half the programs funded under the PLESA grant were not providing training for PLESAs at the time of funding. Those which were, generally had limited funds allocated for this purpose. At a minimum, therefore, it can be said that the PLESA program provided enough funds to enable 47 prime sponsors to serve 6,547 people who otherwise would not have been served. It also resulted in 2,560 of these people getting jobs and perhaps another 1,000 becoming eligible for Title I training.

The PLESA money was neither designated nor used for research or demonstration of new ways to serve PLESAs more effectively. It was used largely to extend existing services to a few members of a large, needy population. How successful was the program, both in meeting client needs and the federal priorities set for the program?

- How successful was the program overall?

A lot was learned about serving PLESAs because of this program. The project staff probably learned the most because they were in direct contact with the PLESA participants. Some projects which had never served Hispanics or Asians before learned --often through trial and error-- what was involved in serving PLESAs. Those projects which continued to serve PLESAs after

the Title III funding ceased undoubtedly provided better services because of the experience they gained.

There was some success in upgrading the English language ability of PLESAs and in overcoming obstacles to employment and entry into vocational training programs. Because of the PLESA program, a substantial number of the participants improved their ability to speak, read, write, and comprehend English. Some improved one, two, or even three grade levels because of the program. For some of the participants that was enough to enable them to get a job or to enter a Title I training program.

There was also some success in meeting the federal priorities, particularly numbers two (developing new employment opportunities for PLESAs); four (disseminating information and providing job placement and counseling to PLESAs); and six (conducting programs designed to increase the English-speaking ability of PLESAs).

There was some success in getting the program established within the prime sponsors' CETA program. Approximately 18 prime sponsors (38 percent) continued their PLESA projects, in whole or in part, under Title I. Four projects obtained support from their states, and one project continued under a DHEW grant.

There were successes. But the successes were not as numerous as the designers of the program may have expected. Only 39 percent of the PLESA participants were placed in jobs. Job retention apparently was not high. English language ability did not improve enough in many cases to enable participants to get and hold jobs. The program was not successful in meeting three of the federal priorities: numbers one (teaching occupational skills in the primary language for occupations which do not require a high proficiency in English); three (developing opportunities for promotion within existing employment situations); and five (conducting training and employment programs in the primary language). And finally, almost two-thirds of the prime sponsors did not continue their PLESA projects.

8.2: The Need for Programs for PLESAs

The PLESA program was a one-time "windfall". No special funding is planned for the future. Is the need still there? If so, how much special attention do PLESAs require, and whose responsiblity is it to serve them?

- The Need is There

There is a large, growing, needy population which is not being adequately served by existing programs. The PLESA experience demonstrates that there are

thousands of Latins, Asians and others who need the type of help a PLESA program can provide. Long waiting lists of people currently trying to get into a PLESA program attest to this fact.

Exactly how many people need help is unknown because PLESAs tend to be undercounted in census and other demographic surveys. However, it is clear that the demand for assistance far exceeds the resources currently available to supply needed services.

- Special Services are Required

The population in need of services is not only large, but diverse. Some PLESAs can function relatively well in regular CETA training or work experience situations after a relatively short "English brushup" course. These are people with high native language literacy, a good background in English already, and probably previous job skills and experience in a relevant field. However, the majority of PLESAs have special needs that are not met easily by most regular CETA programs. These needs lie in several areas.

--Acculturation: Most PLESAs come from a different culture. They need help in overcoming culture shock, understanding the U.S. way of life, and in accepting U.S. work values.

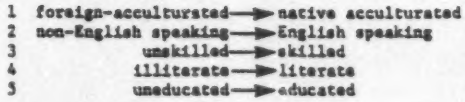
--English: Not only is English needed to get a job, but it is also a prerequisite to many vocational training programs. The ESL that is required is not the "general ESL" usually taught, but rather English focused on manpower objectives.

--Skills: Many PLESAs lack work experience and have only low level skills. They need training if they are to get anything other than unskilled jobs. However, this training, to be effective, must in many cases be offered bilingually.

--Literacy: Some PLESAs are illiterate, not just in English, but in their native language. They need to learn to read and write in their own language before they can deal with English. Others are literate in their native languages, but cannot read well in English, certainly not at the "6th grade level" required for entry into much CETA training.

--Basic education: Some PLESAs have little or no formal education. Without it they have difficulty understanding basic concepts that are prerequisites to vocational training. Mathematics is one critical area. Some PLESAs don't know how to count, add, measure, weigh, subtract, and so forth. They need to learn this before they enter skills training.

In each of the areas above, needs vary across a wide spectrum. Depending on where the target population for a program falls on the spectrum, it will need more or fewer services. Graphically, the range of needs can be illustrated, at least roughly, as follows:


1 foreign-acculturated → native acculturated
2 non-English speaking → English speaking
3 unskilled → skilled
4 illiterate → literate
5 uneducated → educated

The specific mix of needs will, of course, vary from individual to individual and locality to locality. However any program to train PLESAs will probably have to deal, at a minimum, with acculturation, English, and bilingual skills training. Literacy and ABE training may also be required in a number of cases. Most CETA programs are not set up to meet all these needs. Some, however, do first offer ABE and ESL to PLESAs and follow that with vocational training. The problem is that when PLESAs are foreign-acculturated, non-English speaking, unskilled, and illiterate or uneducated, the amount of time required to bring them to full employability in a nonmenial occupation is considerable--three to four years, according to most estimates.

- How Should These Needs Be Adressed?

Given the special needs of the PLESA population, it is unrealistic to assume that they can be met within regular CETA programs, which were designed primarily for English-speaking participants. For those clients who need basic education as well as English and skills training, a combination of training programs may be required. For example, general ESL and ABE courses could be offered first by educational institutions funded by DHEW, the states or local school districts. This could be followed by MESL and skills training offered by prime sponsors. Another approach would be to provide all of the needed services through special projects developed by prime sponsors or through another national program for PLESAs.

The reality is that a national program is unlikely at this time. If services are to be provided at all, the prime sponsors will have to take the lead. But ETA can provide indirect support through research, technical assistance, training, and so forth.

8.3: What Prime Sponsors Can Do

- The First Step: A Decision to Act

The first thing a prime sponsor should do is decide whether to provide special services to PLESAs or not. Since PLESAs are not always a highly visible minority, the prime sponsor needs to take a careful, periodic look at the changing demographics in the community. The need for PLESA services will, of course, vary from locality to locality. Many localities do not have a significant number of PLESAs. But for those localities that do, federal regulations require prime sponsors to provide such services "when persons of limited English-speaking ability constitute a significant proportion of a prime sponsor's target population." But it is still necessary for the prime sponsor's board to identify PLESAs as a special population in need of services and to place PLESAs in a priority category. Only then will

a special project or program be mandated.

If a prime sponsor decides to provide services, there are two broad options available: 1) the prime sponsor can provide all of the needed services; or 2) the prime sponsor can provide some of the services and refer participants to other agencies for the remaining services. For example, participants could be referred to the community colleges for basic education and ESL, to skills centers for vocational training, and to the employment service for job placement.

But the PLESA experience has shown that services will be more effective if they are provided by one agency rather than by several. Thus, the first option would be preferable unless clients need a three to four year program. In that case CETA would take over once ABE training is completed.

If the prime sponsor decides to provide the services, then funding becomes an important issue. PLESA projects are expensive. Most prime sponsors will have to use regular CETA training funds but other funds are available from state departments of education and vocational education, local school districts, and federal grants from DHEW. Prime sponsors have applied for these funds in the past to serve PLESAs.

- Designing and Operating a PLESA Project

Chapters 3 through 7 included specific recommendations for planning, organizing, staffing, recruiting clients, counseling, training, developing jobs, and so forth. Those recommendations constitute an "Operators Guide" for prime sponsors and project staffs who are interested in providing services to PLESAs. Some of the more important recommendations for designing and operating a PLESA project are summarized below:

1. Plan projects thoroughly from the start. This involves a needs assessment to determine types, numbers, and training needs of setting separate course objectives for different levels of PLESAs, and involvement of potential employers and unions at the planning stage to ensure ultimate placement.

2. Organize projects along client lines. A client-based organization will ideally have one group responsible for all services rather than a separation of responsibility by function. Key staff will coordinate their work rather than operate independently. The organization selected will be responsive to the ethnic community.

3. Develop specific selection criteria that are based on what can be achieved in the course of the training for PLESAs. Entry-level requirements should be established and used as selection criteria. Where possible, projects should use a neutral third party for eligibility certification, but selection should be done by a project team.

4. Use both formal and informal assessment procedures to measure need, English skills level of knowledge, vocational aptitude, and expressed motivation. These should be used in combination, since no single procedure or test can provide sufficient information. Projects should not rely on general literacy tests for selection.

5. Budget funds specifically for counseling of PLESA clients. Counselors should be bilingual and preferably from the same cultural background as the PLESA clients. They should be prepared to deal with a variety of personal, acculturation, and vocational counseling needs.

6. Spell out terminal and interim performance objectives for language and vocational training courses. Terminal objectives should be realistic within time allotted for training, and matched to student entry level. Specific performance objectives and tasks should be laid out for both MESL and vocational courses.

7. Target ESL training toward manpower objectives and the improvement of oral skills. One way to ensure that manpower objectives are met is to supplement classroom instruction with work experience as much as possible.

8. Integrate MESL with vocational training. A sequential approach that begins with MESL and then combines English and skills training has proved effective in a number of cases.

9. Offer vocational instruction bilingually, but with as much emphasis on English as possible. If possible, use bilingual instructors rather than rely on materials written in both languages. Instructors can adjust to the language level of each student.

10. Use innovative delivery methods where feasible. Individualized instruction, procedures to extend the classroom, situational approaches, and, for vocational education, open-entry-open-exit procedures should be considered.

11. Seek professional, technical assistance in materials selection if thoroughly trained and experienced ESL and bilingual vocational educators are not available. Even trained project staff should consult available libraries and bibliographies before making a selection.

12. Include specific sessions in the curriculum for clients for the world of work. These sessions should include orientation in work values as well as in techniques for getting and holding a job. Acculturation problems should also be dealt with.

13. Identify and develop jobs that match the clients' needs and abilities. Make sure that job developers are not only knowledgeable about the job market, but about their clients as well.

14. Conduct follow-up and feed the information back into the project. Make sure that information is collected about job retention, job adjustment, the strengths and weaknesses of the PLESA services. Set up a mechanism to feed this information back to the instructors, counselors, and job developers.

In general, prime sponsors can expect to be effective in serving PLESAs if they are systematic and thorough in planning the project, designing a curriculum that is focused on clients' special English and acculturation needs, and matching clients to jobs.

8.4: What ETA Can Do

- How Can ETA Assist Prime Sponsors?

CETA projects are, by law, decentralized and designed to respond to local needs. The decision to serve PLESAs or not is one that each prime sponsor must make for itself, based on local needs and local priorities. But for those prime sponsors interested in serving PLESAs, ETA can play a supportive role through staff training, technical assistance to projects, dissemination of information, research, and demonstrations. Particularly needed are technical assistance to build the competence of projects to serve PLESAs, dissemination of information concerning innovative approaches and materials, and training of prime sponsor and project staff. Particularly useful would be an ETA-sponsored training program or series of conferences that would provide practical "how to do it" information focused on the unique needs of PLESAs, and thus meet a number of prime sponsor and project information needs at once.

Chapters 3 through 7 included specific recommendations for ETA in these areas. Some of the more important recommendations are summarized below:

1. Sponsor research. Areas where research is needed are: the employment and training needs of PLESAs; the types of jobs for which they can be trained in different periods of time; the English language requirements for various occupational fields; the actual cost of providing different types of services to PLESAs.

2. Provide Technical Assistance. Provide prime sponsors with guidelines and/or on-site technical assistance for running a PLESA project; setting objectives; selecting participants;

selecting ESL and vocational training materials; linking ESL and vocational training; conducting follow-up; and monitoring and evaluating PLESA services.

3. Conduct Development and Demonstration Projects. ETA could sponsor a series of specific demonstration projects for serving different types of PLESAs. These could serve as models for future PLESA projects. Projects are needed to develop and test specific performance objectives and activities for manpower ESL. Finally, ETA could help develop a comprehensive series of MESL texts to be used in intermediate and advanced classes for PLESAs.

8.5: What the Administration and Congress Can Do

The PLESA population is one that has a variety of needs that tend to "fall through the cracks," because of its special needs and because of its lack of political muscle at the local level. If PLESAs were a small and diminishing percentage of the nation's potential work force, this tendency would not pose a serious concern. But the opposite is true. A recent TIME Magazine article highlighted the fact that Spanish-speaking Americans will probably be our largest minority group by the year 1980. And the growth of the Asian American population in the Far West is likely to make that group a significant minority as well. Currently constituted local projects and current legislation are unprepared to deal with this phenomenon.

The Administration could play a coordinative and supportive role. A first step could be to recognize that PLESAs are a large and growing group in need of special attention and services. A second step could be to develop a strategy and an interagency plan for providing those services.

The responsibility for serving this population does not fall wholly on ETA. The Department of Health, Education and Welfare funds a variety of ESL, ABE, and bilingual vocational training projects around the country. Other departments of the federal and state governments are also involved in providing services to PLESAs. Greater coordination among these agencies is needed to increase the range of services provided to PLESAs and to reduce duplication of effort. For example, in some areas it may be more efficient to provide ESL instruction through DHEW programs than through CETA. Research and development projects, such as those suggested in Section 4.4, could be sponsored by DHEW as well as by ETA.

It is probably unrealistic to assume that a truly comprehensive national PLESA policy can be implemented across agency lines without a congressional mandate. To date there is no such mandate.

For example, the most recent CETA legislation recognizes that persons of limited English-speaking ability constitute a special group and require special services. However, no funds were appropriated to provide those services. The legislation merely requires the Secretary of Labor to make sure that such services are provided. That is, no special PLESA program was authorized. As noted previously, it is largely up to the local prime sponsors to determine whether PLESAs will be served and which services they will be provided.

Finally, it is not at all certain that some of the CETA legislative requirements can or should be met. The legislation currently requires "teaching occupational skills in the primary language for occupations which do not require a high proficiency in English" and "conducting training and employment programs in the primary language" of PLESAs. But the PLESA experience shows that there are few jobs in which English is not required and that those that do exist are usually "dead end" jobs. That is why none of the 47 PLESA projects provided either of these services. Providing instruction in the primary language of PLESAs may be a reasonable first step, but in most cases it will not be enough. Almost all of the PLESA projects found out that most clients will have to be able to function in English to get and hold a job.

Appendix A

ESL for PLESA

An Annotated Bibliography of Instructional Materials
for Persons of Limited English-speaking Ability

by
Marta Kelsey

This bibliography has been compiled to aid prime sponsors and others who are interested in locating materials that can be used in training persons of limited English-speaking ability.

The bibliography is organized in six sections

- Vocationally-oriented ESL instructional materials
- General ESL instructional materials
- Vocational training materials
- Tests
- Bibliographies
- Publishers of instructional materials

I am grateful to Allene Grognet and Barbara Robson of the Center for Applied Linguistics, Gladys Garcia of SER, Jobs for Progress, Inc., and Kamer Davis of University Research Corporation for their help in compiling this bibliography.

VOCATIONALLY-ORIENTED ESL INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Bernstein, Rosella, Charles W. Gay, Robert B. Kaplan, and Ron D. Schoesler, English at Your Fingertips: A Typewriter Assisted Language Learning Program. Portland, OR: English Language Services, 1975.

Typing speed is secondary to English proficiency in this text. It is designed for use by experienced ESL teachers with literate non-English speakers.

Bodman, J., and M. Lanzano, No Hot Water Tonight. New York: Collier-MacMillan International, 1975.

There is no specific target language background in this supplementary reader for students at a 5th grade or below level. It is vocationally oriented and refers to factory, office/clerical, vocational/trade, etc. topics. Incidents concern aspects of life a newcomer encounters and must cope with.

Center for Applied Linguistics, English for Your Job. 4 Modules: Auto Mechanics, Clerical, Food Services, Prevocational. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1978.

This is a series of four vocational/technical education ESL books designed for adults. The vocabulary is extensive but the sentence structure is simple. Vietnamese-English glossaries are included. Spanish-English glossaries are in preparation.

Honolulu Community College, English for Special Purposes Series. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, 1977.

This is a series of books on autobody repair and nursing. Translation manuals are available for Korean, Vietnamese, and Ilocano.

Rusthoi, Daniel, Prevocational English, Texts I and II. Silver Spring, MD: Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 1974-77.

The text has been designed to introduce intermediate ESL students to vocational English. Text I includes: general mechanics, electricity, plumbing and repairing, measurement; Text II includes: map-reading, charts, graphs, etc.

Taylor, Marcia E., Orientation in Business English: Secretarial Skills. Silver Spring, MD: Institute of Modern Languages, 1972-77.

Three levels are available in this series of text books and workbooks. A teachers guide is available.

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Guidelines for English as a Second Language. Washington, D.C.: 1975. (ET Handbook No. 350.)

This guide is designed to provide prime sponsors with a source of information on English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction. This document is intended to improve existing services and serve as a guide to establish and maintain new ESL programs.

Wordsall, V., Hotel Personnel Books 1 and 2. New York: MacMillan Co., 1971.

Book 1 is for office managers, clerks, cashiers, and telephone operators. Book 2 is for bar and restaurant employees. Both are designed for ESL students who need to learn specialized English. They should be used by experienced ESL teachers.

GENERAL ESL INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Breckenridge, Robert G., Access to English as a Second Language: 1. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.

A beginning English text, it is useful with a non-urban student of any language background.

English Languages Services, Inc., Drills and Exercises in English Pronounciation. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1971.

Ungraded texts can be used independently or together at any level of proficiency. Book I covers Consonants and Vowels, Books II and III deal with Stress and Intonation. Tapes are available. Introductions to each book include suggestions for teachers.

Hall, Eugene J., and Sandra Costinett, Orientation in American English. Silver Spring, MD: Institute of Modern Languages, 1974. (revised 1977.)

The six levels of this series move from the student with no English to academic proficiency. Tapes and cassettes are available.

Hawaii Newspaper Agency, Inc., Using Your Daily Newspaper to Teach English as a Second Language.

A guide for implementing the newspaper as a teaching tool, the booklet introduces discussions of cultural differences.

Iwataki, Sadae, et al., English as a Second Language, A New Approach for the 21st Century. San Juan Capistrano, CA: ModuLearn, Inc., 1973-74.

This is a coping skills based text designed to help non-English-speaking adults function in an English-speaking community. It is situationally oriented and structurally sequenced. Cultural notes for Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Asians in general, and Spanish are included as well as response patterns and structural notes for each group. General topics are travel, police, occupations, looking for a job, and paying bills.

Lado, Robert, Lado English Series. New York: Regents Publishing Company, 1970-73. Books 1-6.

Generally, this series is for adults of 8th grade level of education or better. It can be used by the inexperienced ESL instructor and implements an audio-lingual approach.

Macero, Jeanette D., and Martha A. Lane, The Laubach Way to English. Syracuse, NY: New Readers Press.

A system for teaching English to speakers of other languages is presented. It is designed primarily to teach adults who are illiterate in their own language as well as in English. It is also ideal for literate sutdents whose native writing system is different than the Roman alphabet. It can be used by inexperienced ESL instructor.

Mackey, I.S., English as a Basic Course for Adults. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1972.

This is a basic English course for zero-level English students. Material is basic and carefully controlled to give immediately useful structures and vocabulary. It is good for use in adult education classes and for teachers with no ESL experience. Some life skills are included.

Mellgren, L., and M. Walker. New Horizons in English, Books I-VI. Barrington, IL: Addison-Wesley, 1973.

A series of English texts, this portrays humorous, realistic situations. Listening and speaking are stressed rather than reading in the early books. The series can be used by the inexperienced ESL teacher.

Morly, Joan, Improving Aural Comprehension. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 19732.

This is a widely used directed program of purposeful listening to improve aural comprehension. A teacher's book of readings and tapes is available.

National Indochinese Clearinghouse, English Pronounciation Exercises for Speakers of Vietnamese. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1977.

This series of pronunciation lessons on the specific problems that Vietnamese speakers have in speaking Egnlish can be used with students of all ages and levels of English.

Nilsen, Don, and Allen Pace Nilsen, Pronunciation Contrasts in English. New York: Regents, 1971.

Pronunciation exercises are presented by problem, dealing with particular problems such as the lack of /b/ - /v/ contrast, that ESL students are likely to have. This is appropriate for all levels of student and is particularly useful for teachers of Vietnamese students. A glossary of phonetic terms is included.

Paulson, Christina B., and Mary Bruder, Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures. Cambridge, MA: Winthrop Publishers, 1976.

A practical discussion of the classroom methods and procedures of ESL instruction are presented.

Sheeler, Willard D., Welcome to English. Portland, OR: English Language Services, Inc., 1976.

This is an adult course for ESL students, consisting of six basic texts of 24 lessons. It intends to develop four language skills: speaking and understanding, followed by reading and writing skills.

SW Cooperative Educational Laboratory, Inc., Alphabet. Albuquerque, NM: SWCEL, 1971.

This bilingual approach to learning the alphabet is suitable for use by Spanish-speaking double illiterates. Tapes and workbooks involve much repetition. It is part of a more extensive series, "Learning English."

VOCATIONAL TRAINING MATERIALS

Anema, Durlynn, Don't Get Fired: 13 Ways To Hold Your Job. Hayward, CA: Janus, 1978.

A career education book, proper and improper behavior are indicated and presented through photo-dialogue essays.

Chacon, Louis, Jr., Bilingual Materials for Business Office Education. Phoenix, AZ: Arizona Department of Education.

This material is in both English and Spanish.

Dailey, J. T., and C. Neyman, Occupations For You. Alexandria, VA: Allington Corporation, 1961.

A variety of vocational occupations are presented. Salaries, training requirements, working conditions, and employment outlooks are included. This is an excellent supplementary material in a vocationally-oriented ESL class taught by an experienced ESL teacher.

de Meza, Barbara S. Business Letter Handbook: Spanish-English/English-Spanish. New York: Regents, 1973.

This is a complete guide to bilingual letter-writing and other aspects of commercial correspondence in both Spanish and English. (Spanish.)

Goltry, M., Forms in Your Future. New York: Learning Trends, 1973.

Many forms are included. Among them are: social security applications, job applications, check and savings account applications, insurance forms, drivers' license and marriage licenses, tax forms, and voter registration.

Jew, Wing., and Carol Tandy, Using the Want Ads. Hayward, CA: Janus Book Publishers, 1977.

This is designed for secondary students with low reading skills, but is easily adapted for ESL students. Strategies for reading different kinds of classified ads are taught.

Kahn, Charles, Wing, Jew, and Robert Tong, My Job Application File. Hayward, CA: Janus Book Publishers, 1975.

Originally intended for native speakers with low reading skills, this is excellent for ESL students. There is a minimum of explanatory text, and a maximum of vocabulary work. Nine application forms are included. A free teachers' manual is available.

Lang, Carole J., Handbook of Job Facts. Chicago, IL: Science Research Associates, Inc., Guidance Department, 5th edition, 1972.

This is a valuable resource for discovering what skills are needed for particular jbos.

Larned, Phyllis, People Working Today. Hayward, CA: Janus Book Publishers, 1975-77.

This is a series of ten books about teenagers getting and keeping their first job. Each book features the duties, responsibilities, and working conditions of a different entry-level job.

Mountford, A., English in Workshop Practice. Fairlawn, NJ: Oxford University Press, 1975.

Highly specialized vocabulary in technical, skilled workshop materials and processes is presented for use by experienced vocational/technical and ESL teacher. This text can be used for students at a 5-8th grade reading level.

Roderman, Winifred Ho, Reading Schedules. Hayward, CA: Janus Book Publishers, 1978.

This is a workbook designed for secondary students with low reading skills, but adaptable and useful for ESL students. Different types of schedules are presented, including bus and train schedules, TV logs, etc., with exercises and activities. Free teachers manual is included with workbooks.

Sheff, Donald A., Secretarial English. New York: Regents, 1964.

Secretarial English is presented in a direct, easy to learn manner. The book covers every rule of grammar, punctuation, and common usage and is accompanied by concise instruction.

TESTS

Best, J., and Donna Ilyin, English Language Structure Tests. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1976.

This consists of six tests of English structure which can be correlated with the Ilyin Interview tests for placement of students.

Harris, David, and Leslie Palmer, CELT: A Comprehensive English Language Test for Speakers of English as a Second Language. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

CELT is an academically-oriented test designed to measure the proficiency of teenage and adult students and includes multiple choice tests of grammar, vocabulary, and listening comprehension.

Ilyin, Donna, Ilyin Oral Interview. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1972.

This is a test of students' oral comprehension and production through a series of questions geared to pictures. Questions become progressively harder, and tests progressively more complex structures. It is given to students individually and takes up to half-hour per student. It can be used for placement or as a standard check of progress.

Kunz, Linda, The John Test: A Test of Oral Proficiency for ESL Placement. New York: Language Innovations, Inc., 1976.

The John Test is a quick placement test designed for adults. Students are tested orally and individually; testing takes about five minutes per student.

Poczik, Robert, English as a Second Language Tests. Albany, NY: Bureau of Basic Continuing Education, State Education Department, 1973.

The instruments are appropriate for use in adult basic education programs and can be administered in 5-10 minutes.

Upshur, John, et al. Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency. Ann Arbor, MI: English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1971.

The test consists of three parts: grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. It can be used diagnostically for placement or as a posttest. The Michigan Test is academically oriented.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Bilingual Bicultural Education, Evaluation Instruments for Bilingual Education: An Annotated Bibliography. Austin, TX:

This compendium of over 250 evaluation instruments in use by project sties throughout the U.S. is designed to assist bilingual/bicultural educators in locating, developing, or adapting evaluation instruments suitable to local assessment needs. (Available from Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 6504 Tralor Lane, Austin, Texas 78721.)

Basic English as a Second Language Center, Handout Series of Biblio graphies, New Holland, PA.

Annotated bibliographies for specific Asian target languages and cultures have been developed by the BESL Center. All listed entries are available for loan from the BESL Library. Specific languages are: Cambodian, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Laotian, and Thai.

Escobar, Joanna Sculley, and John Daughtery, An Annotated Bibliography of Adult ESL Instructional Materials. Arlington, Heights, IL: Illinois ESL/ABE Service Center, 1976.

This is an annotated bibliography of available adult ESL student materials. It has been prepared with the needs of adult ESL administrators, coordinators, teachers, and teacher aides in mind. It provides a representative sampling of materials available and will assist in the selection of materials for adult ESL programs.

Ney, James W., and Donella K. Eberle, A Selected Bibliography of Bilingual/ Bicultural Education. ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Arlington, VA: 1975.

This selected bibliography presents a listing of available articles, surveys, textbooks, and anthologies in the field of bilingual/bicultural education. Equal emphasis is given to theory and education.

PUBLISHERS OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
106 West Station Street
Barrington, IL 60010

Allington Corporation
801 North Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314

BESL Center
100 Franklin Street
New Holland, PA 17557

Cambridge Book Company
488 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Center for Applied Linguistics
1611 North Kent Street
Arlington, VA 22209

Collier Macmillan International
866 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022

English Language Series
14350 N.W. Science Park Drive
Portland, OR 97229

Follett's Michigan Bookstore
322 South State Street
Ann Arbor, MI 48108

Modulearn, Inc.
32158 Camino Capistrano
San Juan Capistrano, CA 92675

New Readers Press
Division of Laubach Literacy, Inc.
Box 131
Syracuse, NY 13210

Newbury House Publishers
68 Middle Road
Rowley, MA 01969

James H. Heineman, Inc.
475 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Honolulu Community College
University of Hawaii
Honolulu, HI 96817

Institute of Modern Languages
2622 Pitman Drive
Silver Spring, MD 20190

Kirschner Associates, Inc.
5309 Sequoia Road, N.W.
Albuquerque, NM 87210

Janus Book Publishers
3541 Investment Blvd., Suite 5
Hayward, CA 94545

Language Innovations, Inc.
Suite 67A
200 West 72nd Street
New York, NY 10023

McGraw-Hill Book Company
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10019

Macmillan Publishing Company
866 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Southwestern Cooperative Educational
Laboratory, Ind.
229 Truman, N.E.
Albuquerque, NM 87108

Steck-Vaughn Company
P.O. Box 2028
Austin, TX 78767

University of Michigan Press
English Language Institute
615 East University
Ann ARbor, MI 48106

Oxford University Press
1600 Pollitt Drive
Fairlawn, NJ 07410

Regents Publishing Company
2 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10016

Science Research Associates, Inc.
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, IL 60611

University Research Corporation
Suite 1600
5530 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20015

Wibble Language Institute, Inc.
24 South 8th Street
Allentown, PA 18105

Winthrop Publishing Company
Prentice Hall
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Appendix B

RESOURCES FOR PLESA PROJECTS

An annotated list of resources for PLESA prime sponsors.

by
Marta Kelsey

The following list identifies some organizations who can serve as valuable resources to prime sponsors and their subcontracts in the organization and implementation of training programs for persons of limited English-speaking ability. National resources are listed first, followed by regional/local resources.

My thanks go to Allene Grognet of the Center for Applied Linguistics and Jonathan Bair for their help in identifying potential resources.

National Resources

ESL

BESL Center Lancaster-Lebanon IU-13 100 Franklin Street New Holland, PA 17447 (717) 354-4601	The BESL Center has more than 9,500 Bilingual Education books and materials available for anyone interested in ESL education. Specific areas are: ESL, Adult vocational English, Spanish as a First Language, Hispanic Culture, Vietnamese Language and Culture.
Center for Applied Linguistics 10th Floor 1611 North Kent Street Arlington, VA 22209 (703) 528-4312	The Center can offer consultation in how to serve different language groups and training materials development. Information on ESL, bilingual education, and other related fields is collected and disseminated. The Center is concerned primarily with the practical application of ESL theory. The Indochinese Clearinghouse is also operated by the Center.
TESOL - Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Georgetown University Washington, DC 20007 (202) 337-7264	TESOL is a national, professional organization of teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. There are many local TESOL affiliates across the country.

Hispanic

National Council of LaRaza 1725 "I" Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20006 (202) 659-1215	LaRaza is dedicated to the social and economic advancement of Hispanic Americans. The Council currently has a grant to DOL/ETA to recommend strategies to overcome employment barriers to Hispanic Youth.

Manpower

SER, Jobs for Progress, Inc. Suite 1024 9841 Airport Boulevard Los Angeles, CA 90045 (213) 649-1511	SER is a training program and employment service specifically for Spanish-speaking Americans. There are many local SER affiliates across the country.

Center for Rural Manpower and Public Affairs
Agriculture Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
(517) 355-0135

The Center serves as a clearinghouse for manpower and labor information and publications. Their focus is specifically oriented to Region V, but some general information is available.

Human Resources Institute
Business Office Building
Room 412
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, UT 84112
(801) 581-6127

Faculty members and graduate students of the University are available to offer technical advice and assistance in the general area of manpower training program implementation.

General

ETA Resource Clearinghouse
U.S. DOL/ETA
Room 10011
601 D Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20213
(202) 376-7411

The Clearinghouse is a national resource center for DOL publications. Each Region also has a Regional Resource Center, their addresses and phone numbers are listed below.

Regional/Local

ETA Regional Resource Centers provide an access to ETA materials. Address inquiries to: ETA Regional Resource Center, at appropriate address.

Region I
U.S. DOL/ETA, Room 1700
JFK Federal Building
Boston, MA 02203
(617) 223-4684

(Connecticut, New Hampshire, Maine, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Vermont)

Region II
U.S. DOL/ETA, Room 3701
1515 Broadway
New York, NY 10036
(212) 662-5871

(New Jersey, New York, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands)

Region IV
U.S. DOL/ETA, Room 418
1371 Peachtree Street, NE
Atlanta, GA 30309
(404) 257-3328

(Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee)

Region V
U.S. DOL/ETA, 6th Floor
230 South Dearborn
Chicago, IL 60604
(312) 353-5061

(Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin)

Region III
U.S. DOL/ETA, Room 13112
3535 Market Street
Philadelphia, PA 19101
(215) 596-6349

(Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia)

Region VI
U.S. DOL/ETA, Room 316
555 Griffin Square Building
Dallas, TX 75202
(214) 749-1782

(Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas)

Region VII
U.S. DOL/ETA, Room 16417
711 Walnut Street
Kansas City, MO 64106
(316) 758-5995

(Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska)

Region IX
U.S. DOL/ETA, Room 9209
450 Golden Gate Avenue
San Francisco, CA 94102
(415) 556-4928

(Arizona, California, Hawaii, Nevada, American Samoa, Guam, Trust Territory)

Region VIII
Federal Office Building
1961 Stout Street
Denver, CO 80294
(303) 837-4571

(Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Wyoming)

Region X
U.S. DOL/ETA
Arcade Plaza
1321 Second Avenue
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